

THE
AMERICAN MONTHLY REVIEW.

JUNE, 1832.

ART. I. — *The History of New Hampshire*, by JEREMY BELKNAP, D. D., &c. From a Copy of the Original Edition, having the Author's last Corrections; to which are added *Notes, containing various Corrections and Illustrations of the Text, and additional Facts and Notices of Persons and Events therein mentioned*; by JOHN FARMER, Corresponding Secretary of the New Hampshire Historical Society. Vol. I. Dover. S. C. Stevens and Ela & Wadleigh. 1831. 8vo. pp. 512.

WE are happy in the belief that a fondness for historical pursuits is rapidly gaining ground amongst us, and that the early history of our own country is gathering to it a degree of interest bearing some just proportion to its importance and value. This however is but a late love. Many of our readers well recollect the time when American history was a *terra incognita* to our scholars. And this ignorance was more than winked at. Our men of learning would relate with minute accuracy the fabulous stories of the elder nations. They would tell of the foundation of Carthage; of the origin of the Grecian and Roman States, and of the wars they successively carried on; and would be very Plutarchs in their acquaintance with the biography of distinguished men. But ask them of the early history of our colonies, of the sufferings they encountered, of the principles for which they contended, of the great and good men they produced, and we should receive but little accession of light. We should be told that though our history might be rich in incident, it was meagre in writers, while our definite origin shut

out all the beautiful creations of imagination and poetry ; as if invention possessed any thing in common with history. Let fable and romance have their appropriate field in poetry and works of fiction with whatever delights and fascinations they may bring ; but let them not enter the sober precincts of history, and confound fact and fancy. These aids are worse than useless ; they are pernicious.

If we have no history that may serve for a model in its kind, — none written in classic phrase and in a philosophical spirit like Tacitus or Hume, we have those which possess interest in themselves without adventitious circumstances, — rich, authentic, and instructive. Our history begins with enlightened man in an enlightened period of the world, and describes the difficulties and dangers, the character, sufferings, and triumphs, of a peculiar people.

But the love of country is concerned in this matter ; and by this we are far from meaning simply a manifestation of interest for a certain extent of land and water. The idea of country is complex. It embraces the place of our birth and of our early and fond associations ; the place of our education and of the active duties of life ; of our enjoyments and sufferings. It is mixed up with the love and progress of literature, science, and morals, with the advance of wealth and population, and the hearty support of good institutions. It attaches itself to the scenery around, to the forest and waterfall, to the river and mountain and the broad valley ; to living man in all the hopes and improvements of his social condition ; to the memory of our fathers, and their worthy deeds ; to their joys and sorrows, and to the very graves in which they sleep. It kindles within us in childhood, and burns intensely to the close of life.

Dr. Belknap's "*History of New Hampshire*" has been for many years before the public, and probably a fair and just estimate has been formed of its merits. The work, however, we believe, never received any notice in a periodical journal, except in the old "*Massachusetts Magazine*," forty years since. We, therefore, take this opportunity of a new edition to say a few words of the work itself. The period embraced in this history is from the first planting of a colony on the banks of the Piscataqua in the Spring of 1623, to the year 1791. And the author in the course of his progress introduces portions of more general history, so far as they are connected with his principal design.

The success of an early settlement in a new country depends not only upon the character of the adventurers, but also upon the objects they have in view. The early colonists in New Hampshire were not men of much consideration. Edward and William Hilton, who settled at Dover, were fish-mongers of London. The other company, composed of no higher class, was established at Little Harbour, near the mouth of the river Piscataqua. The main objects of the undertaking were the fisheries, the salt-works, and the discovery of the lakes and mines. There was nothing, therefore, to bind them intimately to the soil, and to give them an enduring interest in the country. Agriculture was but little attended to, and was altogether subsidiary to other pursuits. Indeed, for the first ten years "bread was either brought from England in meal, or from Virginia in grain, and then sent to the wind-mill at Boston." But in Massachusetts, where the cultivation of the soil was the great employment of the inhabitants, and where the colony contained an unusual proportion of men of education and comparative wealth, the increments in property, population, enterprise, learning, and consequently public strength, were rapid and vigorous. The free enjoyment of their own religious faith was the *motive*, the *cause*, of their leaving the parent country and here planting themselves; and the church and school-house immediately sprang up side by side.

For seventeen years the little settlements in New Hampshire struggled with numerous difficulties. The few towns comprising the whole colony were under distinct governments within themselves, formed by voluntary agreement, and therefore of uncertain continuance, and possessing no one principle of strength or union. The more considerate inhabitants, aware of the feeble nature of their respective governments and their liableness to speedy dissolution, were desirous of treating with their more powerful neighbour, Massachusetts, and finally succeeded in 1641 in placing their towns under her jurisdiction. This union between the two colonies lasted nearly forty years. It was of great advantage to New Hampshire in giving her a strong and willing ally for defence in the Indian wars, and entitling her to all the benefits of the colonial confederacy of 1643, and of the political and religious institutions of Massachusetts. It secured to both friendly intercourse and mutual aid, and would

doubtless have continued much longer, even to the Revolution, had the feelings and interests of the people been regarded. But through the intrigues of Mason, who claimed the proprietorship of New Hampshire by virtue of the royal grant to his grandfather, King Charles the Second was induced to erect the Colony into a distinct province; and it ever after remained separate from Massachusetts, with the exception of a short period after the tyranny of Andros was overthrown.

A fruitful source of trouble to the colony and of prevention to its growth and prosperity may readily be found in the claim of Mason and his successors, patentees under the crown to the lands in that colony. The early patents were generally indefinite in the extent of country granted westward from the Atlantic, and frequently to an equal degree in their northern and southern boundaries; nor could it well be otherwise in the universal ignorance that then prevailed touching the geography of the northern continent.

The river Piscataqua was discovered by Captain John Smith, who sailed along the shore from Penobscot to Cape Cod in 1614, and made a map of the coast, which we confess to be one of the greatest curiosities of the kind we ever saw, and know not well how to describe it. In 1621, Captain John Mason, a merchant in London, procured from the Plymouth Company in England a grant of all the land from the river of Naumkeag (Salem) round Cape Anne to the Merrimack; with a west line running from the head of the one river to the head of the other. This was called *Mariana*. The following year a grant was made to Mason and Sir Ferdinando Gorges of all the lands between the rivers Merrimack and Sagadahoc, extending back to the great lakes and river of Canada. This was called *Laconia*. It was under this last grant that the settlements were made at Piscataqua.

In 1629 Mason obtained another grant of all the lands between the Merrimack and the Piscataqua, and extending sixty miles into the country. Much more than this, as has just been remarked, had been previously granted to Mason and Gorges; and it is difficult to account for the new patent, unless we adopt the conclusion that it was intended as an equivalent for the patent of Mariana, which the year before had been granted to Massachusetts, and that it was agreed between Cradock, the first Governor of the latter colony, and

Mason, that the bounds of Massachusetts should be three miles north of the Merrimack, and that the remaining lands to the Piscataqua should be taken to belong to Mason's patent, which was called New Hampshire. The whole of this territory was reserved to Mason when, in 1635, the Council at Plymouth, fearing that their charter would be taken away, resigned it into the hands of the king.

Under this last reservation Mason founded a claim to the territory of New Hampshire, most injurious to its prosperity, and the occasion of a wearisome and protracted dispute. Mason died in 1635, and by his last will gave this estate in entail to his grandson, John Tufton, who was to take the surname of Mason. The settlement at Newichwannock was abandoned by his widow a few years after as an unprofitable speculation. A part of the land at Newichwannock was afterwards recovered by J. Tufton Mason in a suit against the tenant; but the family being of the royal party no attempt was made to recover any other part of the territory till after the restoration of Charles the Second. In the mean time the number and wealth of the inhabitants upon the *debatable land* had considerably increased. Opinions were repeatedly given by the crown officers in England in favor of his title, and finally, in 1679, New Hampshire was made a distinct province by the king, principally, if not wholly, that he might direct the trials and appeals in Mason's claims at his pleasure, apart from the Massachusetts courts. Mason accordingly came over to the province, assumed the title of Lord Protector, and endeavoured to collect rents and compel the people to take leases from him. But at every turn he met with new difficulties, and in some instances with open resistance. The tenants had been in possession some fifty years, under fair purchases from the Indians, and were not of a temper to yield quietly to the imperious demand of the claimant. Finding all his attempts thus far unsuccessful, he commenced a suit against one of the principal inhabitants in 1683, in a court *packed* for the purpose by his partisan and creature Governor Cranfield, and, with the aid of an interested and *packed* jury, obtained a verdict in his favor. After this, many other suits were instituted against the principal landholders, who made no resistance in court, well aware that it would be ineffectual. "The jury," says Belknap, "never hesitated in their verdicts. From seven to

twelve causes were despatched in a day, and the costs were multiplied from five to twenty pounds. Executions were issued, of which two or three only were levied ; but Mason could neither keep possession of the premises nor dispose of them by sale ; so that the owners still enjoyed them. Several of them threatened to appeal to the king, but Major Vaughan alone made the experiment." p. 102.

Vaughan's appeal was decided against him by James the Second of arbitrary memory. But the court in New Hampshire suddenly becoming jealous of the large territory, that seemed now to be already within the grasp of Mason, delayed issuing executions. He obtained a writ of *certiorari* from Chief Justice Dudley for the removal of the causes to the Superior Court then held at Boston for both governments, but his sudden death in 1688, and the Revolution in that year, for a time checked all further proceedings.

In 1691, his sons and heirs John and Robert Mason, weary probably of this hereditary litigation, sold all their interest in the province to Samuel Allen, a London merchant. The new purchaser, on examining the records of the court, found that twenty-four leaves were missing, in which it was supposed the judgments recovered by Mason were recorded. This novel mode of abridging a work was to be sure somewhat of a damper ; but Allen persisted in his claim, and brought a suit against one of the largest landholders to try his title. The cause was given in favor of the defendant. Allen appealed to the king, and judgment was again given against him, on the ground that there was no evidence of Mason's possession. He then petitioned the king to be put in possession of the waste land ; this petition was granted, and embraced as *waste* all *unenclosed* and *unoccupied* land, within as well as without the bounds of settled towns. He again sued and was again unsuccessful. He next attempted to compromise with the Assembly, and certain terms were stated by them, which would probably have been satisfactory on all sides ; but his sudden death the day after the articles of settlement were presented to him (1705) prevented so desirable an issue.

In 1706 and 1707, his son, Thomas Allen of London, made a last and determined effort to establish his title to this large territory, that was every year increasing in value. He renewed the action brought by his father. Both parties pre-

pared for the trial with great industry, and the cause was managed on both sides with zeal and ability. It was a matter of intense interest to the public on the one hand and to the claimant on the other. After a full hearing the jury found a verdict in favor of the defendant. Allen appealed to the Queen in Council, and the appeal was allowed. "But," says Belknap, "the loyalty of the people, and the distresses under which they labored by reason of the war, prevailed on the queen's ministry to suspend a final decision; and before the appeal could be heard, Allen's death, which happened in 1715, put an end to the suit, which his heirs, being minors, did not renew." p. 166.

The sale by John and Robert Mason to Allen in 1691, having been made in England, it was supposed by some that the breaking the entail there for the purpose of making that sale was of no validity, for, the lands being in New Hampshire, the English courts could have no jurisdiction of the matter. Accordingly John Tufton Mason, a grandson of Robert, suffered a recovery in the courts of New Hampshire by which the entail was docted, and he obtained the right of selling his interest. He finally sold, in 1746, all his title to several of the principal gentlemen in the province, who were anxious to see an end of this perplexing business. The grantees relinquished all claim to the towns which had been settled and granted within the limits of their purchase, and by adopting a very liberal policy in their grants of new townships in the province, they obtained great popularity. The heirs of Allen, it is true, threatened to molest them; but the latter, having consulted council both here and in England, were satisfied that their own title was valid.

Thus after a period of nearly one hundred years, after long and bitter altercation and much real distress, this controversy was brought to a close; for no farther attempt was made by Allen's heirs to revive their claim.

There are many other interesting points in the history of New Hampshire. The question of boundary was long unsettled, and Massachusetts, partly by claiming too much of the territory north of the Merrimack, and partly through the jealousy with which she was always regarded by the English government, except during the protectorate of Cromwell, lost a large tract of land to which she was fairly entitled; while New Hampshire, on the other hand, obtained more than

she ever expected, or even asked. The grants made by Governor Benning Wentworth west of Connecticut river, and to within twenty miles of the Hudson, and which were known by the name of the New Hampshire Grants, were the occasion of severe discussion between that government and New York. The inhabitants of the contested territory, which now constitutes the State of Vermont, for a long time strove to constitute themselves a distinct political community, and to embrace many towns to the east of the Connecticut river, belonging to New Hampshire; and it was not until after a state of almost open war with the latter province, and after mutual encroachments, that the jurisdiction on either side was settled and limited, and Vermont was brought into the confederacy.

Like the other provinces, New Hampshire suffered from a wretched paper currency, bills of credit, tender laws, &c., which did so much to embarrass and impoverish the whole country. But a youthful and vigorous people will grow and flourish despite of every obstacle. They may be depressed awhile; bad institutions and bad laws may injure, but cannot crush them; they will always recover at last by their own elasticity.

From other causes frequent calamity visited this province. Her sea-coast was narrow and comparatively barren, and she had not strength to push her population to the fertile lands in the interior till nearly a century after the first settlement. For a long period Dover and Durham were frontier towns; and there was no division into counties till 1771. The Indian was about her path and spread desolation on every side, and occasioned probably more suffering and death in proportion to the population, than in the neighbouring province of Massachusetts. But her sons were hardy, brave, and enterprising, and ever ready to meet the savage enemy in the numerous conflicts that took place. They were distinguished in the expeditions against Canada, at the siege of Louisbourg, and in the war of the Revolution, for vigor and courage, and bore their full share with willing hearts in the defence of their country.

We are glad to see a new edition of Dr. Belknap's "*History*." The author has always been a favorite with us for his catholic spirit, and his historical impartiality. His narrative is excellent, and his disquisitions and reflections are

always well timed and never break the continuity of his relation. His delineations of character are forcible and judicious, and, while marked with the strictness of truth, impress the reader with the benevolence of the character of the author himself. It is a great merit of his style, that in reading we seldom think of it, but are carried along by the interest of the story. The attention is not called to censure a slovenly or inaccurate, nor an ambitious or inflated style. When a writer makes you forget his style, it cannot be very faulty. Dr. Belknap never seems to think of it himself, while it possesses great simplicity and strength. He leads us along pleasant paths, where nothing is sterile, nothing rank, but every thing is pleasant to the eye.

The present volume contains the whole of the original history, together with the last corrections of the venerable author, and several valuable papers that were added by him to the Appendix. The editor, John Farmer, Esq., was fortunate enough to obtain this corrected copy from John Belknap, Esq. of Boston, a son of the historian. Mr. Farmer has added three papers of historical interest, and has made divers corrections throughout the work.* His Notes are numerous, full, and to the purpose. He has well executed all and more than all he promised. It is fortunate that the undertaking fell into such competent hands. All who have seen his excellent "*Gazetteer of New Hampshire*," and other useful works that he has prepared, and his numerous contributions to the history of the country, will be very ready to commend the extent of his antiquarian lore, his great industry, his sound judgment, and the ardor and success of his investigations. We sincerely hope that he will find encouragement to continue the history, and that he will give to the public another volume, which we understand has for some time been in preparation, together with a Map of New Hampshire, and a copious Index to the whole work.

* We are reminded that there should be one addition to the list, in the Appendix, of the public officers of the Province, viz. that of Sir John Temple, who was appointed Lieutenant Governor of New Hampshire in 1761, arrived in Portsmouth in January, 1762, published his commission, and took the oaths of office.

ART. II. — *A Manual of Medical Jurisprudence, compiled from the best Medical and Legal Works; being an Analysis of a Course of Lectures on Forensic Medicine, annually delivered in London.* By MICHAEL RYAN, M. D., Member of the Royal College of Physicians in London, &c. First American Edition. With Notes and Additions, by R. EGLESFELD GRIFFITH, M. D., Lecturer on *Materia Medica* and *Medical Jurisprudence* in the Philadelphia School of Medicine. Philadelphia. Carey & Lea. 1832. 8vo. pp. 327.

THIS is rather a bulky "Manual"; and while reading it, the question often occurred to us, how it might have been put together so as to have answered the title better, and still to have been quite as useful as it is likely to be in its present dimensions. In answering this question, which we now propose to do, we shall have an opportunity to give our opinion of this volume, and state with sufficient distinctness what we hold that subject to be upon which it treats.

There are about three hundred pages in this book, and about one hundred of them are given to what is technically called *Medical Ethics*. We have much doubt whether the morality, or rather the immorality, of the medical calling deserves so much room as all this. Is there in truth any demand for this new code of morals? Does it not belong to good principle in any and every calling to show each and every member of the same what he should do and what he should forbear? And where good principle has place, and a fixed and large place too, will a code of laws keep men in the right way? We can never forget the remarks of one not of the profession of medicine, who by accident took up a volume of medical ethics, strangely named *Medical Police*. He was surprised, and uttered his astonishment in no weak measure, that it should ever for a moment have been thought necessary to bind a whole profession to such observances; as they seemed to belong necessarily to the very being of right thinking and right acting. And is it not a singular fact in the history of this enlightened, dignified, truly noble profession, that the sanctions of oaths and subscriptions should ever have been thought necessary to the well-being of its morality. The work of Percival, which is so frequently

referred to in this matter, was written under circumstances and for a purpose which distinguish it from works of which it is made the model. He began to write it for a son of extraordinary promise, who died before it was finished; and before he had resumed the labor, death again came into his family and added new poignancy to his sufferings. It was at length finished, in the hope, as the author expresses it, "that it may prove beneficial to another son, who has lately exchanged the pursuits of general science at Cambridge for the study of medicine at Edinburgh." This work of Percival, though afterwards enlarged and made to embrace some of the public duties of physicians, those, namely, which regard public health, and those which relate to the administration of public justice, — we say, this work originally was designed for an individual, a beloved son; and was strictly a part of the education of that son. The author was encouraged to add to, and to publish it, and it has been largely used by all who have since written on the subject. But the question recurs, Is it necessary in a work whose great purpose it is to give a physician some general views of his public professional duties, to fill more than a third of it with what he owes to his brethren? Do not the obligations of duty in the case of a liberal profession belong to something else than to a written code; and is it very likely that the individual would find them, or be governed by them, should we tell him to look for them in one?

We have another objection to the first part of this volume. It gives an account of the laws relating to the medical profession in England, and in the United States. The first might well have been omitted in the American reprint. And we question much the advantage of increasing the size of the volume by what is added on American medical law. It is very concise, indeed, but this makes it less useful; for if the knowledge in this regard be at all valuable, it can be so only by being complete. But we consider the addition out of place, and for the following reason. In almost every State of the Union, a society exists which enjoys by law the privilege of regulating medical practice; every regularly educated physician in each State may belong to such a society, and he learns immediately on his admission all that the law of the commonwealth has done for his profession. Now we hold that this is all he need know, and here he gets the knowledge in the readiest and most authentic manner.

The next seventy pages of the work treat of matters which cannot well be discussed in a popular journal. They are questions of physiology; of medical theory; of facts and doctrines which interest the physician, and form a part in every complete medical education. In answering the question with which we began, we may say of this part of the work, that it might have been advantageously shortened. It has a pretty large admixture of statute law in it, both foreign and domestic, and the American editor says, he would have enlarged on the latter, were it not that Dr. Beck is so full in his legal references. We think it well that he has said so little about this matter, whatever the reasons are; and in passing we cannot refrain from saying, that we have always thought Dr. Beck's truly valuable work is only encumbered by the elaborate digest he has given of the criminal law of the several States.

The next hundred pages treat of those medico-legal questions which relate to attempts against health or life. This is an important part of this and similar works. The student will not, however, understand its whole value, if he looks to this volume alone for what he is to *do* in the various emergencies which may call for his services. He is rather to learn from it what these occasions may be, whilst he must prepare for them by the study of the more extended works, the abler monographs, which are devoted to the most important questions on which he may be publicly consulted. Thus he must find in his perfect and full knowledge of the whole of the principles of surgery, and in all the details of actual cases, the preparation for his high function as a witness in alleged homicide by wounds, and all related means of violent death. And for cases of suspected poison, his preparation must be no less complete; which can be made only by a profound study and practice of analytical chemistry, and the truly philosophical application of all its methods as given in the thorough and admirable works of Orfila and Christison. The author and editor of this "Manual" refer to both of these writers, and quote largely from them. But how small a part of either do they or can they give us of voluminous works, emphatically practical, in the few pages of the "Manual" devoted to them. The physician may take up the volume for reference, but we exhort the student, if he would be faithful to the public, to his profession, or to himself, to

go to the fountain-head, the original sources of knowledge in this, as in all other cases. We know of no other safe or honorable road for him.

We have, in Chapter xvii, medico-legal questions relating to mental alienation. This is a short chapter; but most of its few pages are filled with law references and legal technicalities. All this we regard as quite out of place. What does the physician, the medical witness, learn of his public duties from the following, at page 288? "No traverse after the recovery of the insane." Or from this, at page 293? "Purchases and feofments by *non compos*, are not void, but voidable." Following this we have three short chapters on Feigned and Disqualifying Diseases, and on Age and Identity.

The twenty-first Chapter is entitled, Medical Evidence. This is short, but we regard it as the best chapter in the volume. Its purpose is to show what is the nature of professional evidence and testimony. To understand this is to make all the detail of public duty easy. The physician has before him his whole responsibility, and a wise check is placed upon the disposition natural to many men to exceed this. This is a department of medical jurisprudence, so named, that a physician is not obliged to study in order to an admission to practice. All its other departments belong to a regular medical education. To this then his attention should especially be directed, and, in this respect, Percival's "Medical Ethics," and especially Dr. John Gordon Smith's work on the "Analysis of Medical Evidence," deserve particular study. From this last work, Dr. Griffith, the American editor of Ryan's "Manual," has as largely borrowed as his limits would allow. We cannot but express our regret that he has not republished Smith's work, for with this and Beck's systematic treatise our literature on legal medicine would have been much more complete. We cannot but think also, that the medical public would bear an edition of Christison; the latest we would of course recommend, and, with this, we could hardly ask for more.

From what we have said, our opinion of the volume under review may be gathered, and more especially our views of its subject. The latter is resolved into the duties of a physician and their nature, when he is called upon to aid in the means of public health, and in evidence affecting life, character, or property. He is a *witness*; a witness of fact, and of the

reasonings which such fact may and does involve. It is as a physician that he is a witness, and he comes forward, or is called upon by the public, to tell what he has seen, in all its connexions with what he has before seen, studied, and reasoned upon. He has nothing to do with law, and he is to act as if there were to be no application of law to the matter at issue. He has nothing to do with what construction the law puts on human action, and with motive he has less concern. It is, we repeat it, as a physician, one profoundly learned in the construction of the human body; in all its functions, and these both healthful and morbid;—learned too in all the consequences of injuries, and in all the changes, the morbid changes, which poisonous substances may produce, and in the best received methods of detecting such poisons,—finally, acquainted with the appearances discoverable after death, let the circumstances which have produced, or preceded death, have been what they may;—it is in the character of a physician, prepared by this various knowledge, that he is a witness, and we welcome every attempt on the part of the medical profession to make this preparation complete. In closing our remarks on the volume before us, let it be understood that any objections we have entertained towards it, have been principally founded in the unnecessary length of what we regard as extraneous matter, in this and all similar works. This has taken up room which might, we think, have been much better filled. Dr. Griffith's additions, with the exceptions we have made, are very valuable, and give his edition a claim to the patronage of the profession in America. We could have wished that greater care had been bestowed on the more strictly mechanical execution of the volume. With our publishers the vulgar matters of paper, type, &c., are but small affairs it would seem, and expedition with them is more important than accuracy. A paragraph, however, would hardly remedy all this evil, and we have too little space, and too little time, to throw even the shortest one away.

ART. III. — *The Library of the Old English Prose Writers*. Vol. IV. *Resolves, Divine, Moral, Political*. By OWEN FELLTHAM. With some Account of the Author and his Writings. Cambridge. Hilliard & Brown. 1832. 16mo. pp. 316.

SCARCELY any thing is known of the life of this old Christian moralist. We have his folio of wit and wisdom, but the man is invisible. We do not say that he is withdrawn from the world, for there is hardly a hint of a world. He has left a few letters, and these are generally addressed to some initials, or to fancy names, to "a friend," or "a doctor of physic," without dates and almost without a fact that can serve any biographical purpose. A Dedication to the Countess Dowager of Thomond apprises us that most of his "*Resolves*" were "composed under the coverture of her roof"; and for the author's sake we should rejoice to know something of the patroness. Among his "*Occasional Pieces*" he has preserved a Latin epitaph upon his father's tomb in Cambridgeshire; and it is an invaluable memorial, for it tells us nearly all that is known with certainty of the family; — that the excellent man, Thomas Felltham, was born in Suffolk; that he left three sons and three daughters; that he died in 1631, at the age of sixty-two, and that Owen was the youngest of the sons. From his epitaph on himself we learn that he was alive at the Restoration. His "*Three Weeks' Observation of the Low Countries*," published in 1661, is said, in the title-page, to have been *written long since*, and that is the nearest approach to a date of the Travels; there is not a word of himself, but all is about the country and the people. We have looked over page after page of his writings in vain, for a modern name that might enable us to associate him with his great contemporaries at home. His essay entitled, "*Of Reading Authors*," promised something; but for Bacon, Jonson, Selden, &c., there were "the Senecas and Plutarch, the crisped Sallust, the politic Tacitus, the well-breathed Cicero"; — not one more modern. A later name from the Continent, as Galileo or Montaigne, may be found in his works; but why this silence as to his countrymen? Is it peculiar to our author, or was there generally less sympathy among literary men than now, or more delicacy towards each other?

If Felltham never speaks of his neighbours, none that we can recall ever speak of him. We know not when he was born, whether he ever followed or studied a profession, where he was educated, to whom he was married, where he lived, or at what time he died. In this dearth of facts one learns to value so small a thing as a hint in a letter to Sir C. F. that he is in the country and soon going to London; and a note to the Lord C. J. R. about a trial he was engaged in touching "the ancient inheritance of his family." Even the little anecdote of his going to a play at Salisbury Court, is something (p. 109); and also his note of the Earl of Dorset's reply to one who was superstitiously frightened at the salt's being thrown upon him (p. 181.) We do not offer these remarks as if we supposed that every literary life must abound in well-known outward facts, or that we cannot get along with a good book, because the author's history is just nothing at all. But we have felt a little surprise that a man who lived in a season of great public excitement and most probably to an advanced age; who, if a man of letters, was yet not wholly out of the world nor lukewarm in his religious and political opinions; who was acquainted with persons of note, and moreover a popular writer, if we may judge from the many editions his principal work went through in his lifetime; should have so little known about him either from record or tradition.

In this absence of all anxiety on his own part and that of his friends to preserve any particulars of what was probably a very quiet life, we may look to his writings for the truest picture that an author can leave of himself. Here every thing is full, clear, and decided. His "Resolves" are a series of essays upon religious, moral, political, and sometimes literary topics. He wrote one hundred of these (the first Century, as he calls them,) when he was eighteen years of age; but, being dissatisfied with their "many young weaknesses," he afterwards gave them "a new frame and various composition, by altering many, leaving out some, and adding of others new." These were republished with a new Century, in 1628. He says they were all written with the same object, "not so much to please others as to gratify and profit himself"; and published, "not in the expectation of great applause, but to give the world some account how he spent his vacant hours, and that they might be as boundaries to hold him within the limits of prudence, honor, and virtue."

One might apprehend from the object he thus distinctly proposed to himself, that these essays would abound with the tediousness, flippancy, or amusing vanity of egotism. Far from it. He says very little directly about himself. You have the man's mind as plainly before you as the face of a friend, but this is seen chiefly as it is exercised and affected by its subject. Self appears to be regarded by him as a moral nature to be studied, guarded, and improved; and his meditations extending to almost every thing that concerns humanity, are of an exceedingly practical character; and by sincerely consecrating them all to the purpose of strict self-application, he has secured for them the easier access to the heart of every reader. — There is something besides egotism to be feared from a writer's proposing to himself so to order his reflections, that they shall always have some especial practical bearing upon his mind and actions. It is to be feared that he will not be enough absorbed by his subject, will not follow it fully out, will not surrender himself to all that it would naturally suggest of bordering thoughts and varied uses. Fancies of all hues may swarm about him, but he must select what a too narrow purpose has made exclusively pertinent. The mind may long to break forth into many paths, all as safe and happy as the prescribed one, but it must be forced to keep in that. His idea of self and of what is practically useful may be very limited. He who would make every thing tend to improve this whole moral, intellectual being, must think of a great deal more than how to govern a passion, change a habit, establish a good system of work, or demean himself prudently and kindly in society. The *Essays of Bacon* and *Franklin*, the *Meditations of Aurelius*, all the practical maxims of shrewd observers of life, however fitted to give one equanimity or fortitude or sagacity or prudence, may yet leave a great part of the man untouched. And he, after all, may have had a thousand fold more generous moral nurture, who has exposed his whole soul to all the power of a well pondered subject, than he who has ever regulated its influences upon his mind, admitting some as congenial, and repelling or repressing all others as alien.

It appears to us that *Felltham*, without thinking at all about the possible evil of the plan he proposed to himself, has wholly escaped it; that he is thoroughly practical and

yet free to contemplate his subject in all its aspects. In another place he says, that his "Resolves" are "written for the middle sort of people; that they are not high enough for the wisest"; but it is plain that he wrote them without thinking much of his readers of any class. In his closet, in "a melancholy study," as he chooses to call a student's retirement, he gave himself up to perfectly unconstrained reflection.

His distinguishing quality is good sound sense, the very plainest sense, and sometimes the very coarsest; but yet far from being arid or cold; a degree of unction, warmth, or pleasantry always shows how closely opinion and feeling were joined in his mind. What he conceived vigorously he was willing, according to the taste of the age, and it is often the taste of Burke, to tell in any way that seemed most forcible. He has recourse to illustrations from all quarters; the merest pedantry comes as heartily from him as the growths of his ever active fancy. All antiquity is ransacked for parallels and enforcements, and with these is mingled the most delicate or the strongest painting of what he has himself beheld or imagined. Thought is heaped on thought, conceit upon conceit. There is little of modern finish in the "composure," little of the rhetorician's completeness, or of the artist's detail and assemblage. He tells all he has to say just as the ideas come to his mind, with no lingering upon one pleasant image or thought, and no artful transition to another. His particularity is the result of plenty, and not of a desire to be minute or complete. There are few pictures ready made for us, but materials for a thousand, and we may make them for ourselves. It is worth while to read him if but to see how well it is to stop and meditate upon a briefly despatched thought, instead of always following out dilated thoughts with a pleasing sense of something still to come, which we are to reach wholly by the aid of another.

It must be allowed that he is sometimes very ordinary and tedious, and with apparently as little consciousness of it as of his eminent beauties. The amount of common-place, we suppose, is large in all writings; to disguise it is pretty easy in verse, but one of the triumphs of prose. Felltham cares no more about a poor thing of his own than a good one. He would disdain to concentrate all he knew or thought in one flame or sparkle; — and after breaking forth in mild or full splendor,

he is perfectly ready to pass again into the cloud, and without even irradiating it. A pretty fair estimate of his powers and peculiarities might be made from reading a few of his essays ; but we are not content with this ; we become engaged with the character of our tranquil adviser, and the charm of intimacy makes us desire more and more of his writings, with all their inequalities and deficiencies ; and we read them again and again with the same equable satisfaction. The serenity or apparent indifference to fame in these old writers seems to be a pledge that they will never utterly perish. Their long obscurity is a sort of proof of their disinterestedness. They had something to say for our good, and were willing to wait for the season when we could perceive their merit, and value their intentions, and make a fair allowance for their defects.

Felltham lived when parties in religion and politics were most strongly marked and in deadly hostility ; but we do not remember that he ever loses a liberal spirit. He could triumph at the Restoration, and so could Evelyn, but not in the temper of a slave or madman. He was a decided Protestant ; but in his letter to Johnson the Jesuit, he says, " I am neither Zuinglian, nor Lutheran, nor Calvinist, nor Papist, but Christian." And again,

" I shall take it for a favor if you please to let me enjoy my religion in peace. Then I shall so far go along with your wishes, as to pray for direction in the right ; making it further my petition to God that he will vouchsafe to build up his church in truth and unity, and to make us both so members of it here, as we may avoid the errors which exclude from that above, where I shall not despair but that you may be met by me."

The remarks we have offered have proceeded chiefly from the view which the " *Resolves* " present us of Felltham's mind and character. We could not select half a page from any of his one hundred and eighty-five chapters, which would not give the reader some tolerably distinct idea of him. We will quote the closing remarks of that entitled, " *Of Preparing against Death.* "

" Lastly, I will endeavour to be prepared. Neither surprise nor strangeness can hurt me, if I be ready for both. He defeats the tyrant of his feast, that is so prepared as not to shrink at torment. The way to die undauntedly is to do that before, which we ought to do when dying. He that always waits upon

God is ready whensoever he calls. I will labor to set my accounts even, and endeavour to find God such to me in my life, as I would in death he should appear. If I cannot put off humanity wholly, let me put off as much as I can; and that which I must wear let me but loosely carry. When the affections are glued to the world, death makes not a dissolution, but a fraction, and not only separates the soul, but tears it away. So the pain and the hazard is more. He is a happy man that lives so, as death at all times may find at leisure to die. And if we consider that we are always in God's hand, that our lease is but during pleasure, and that we are necessitated once to die, as we shall appear infidels not to trust a Deity, so we must be fools to struggle where we can neither conquer nor defend. What do we do living, if we be afraid of travelling that highway which hath been passed through by all that have lived, and must be by all that shall live? We pray, undress, and prepare for sleep that is not one night long; and shall we do less for death, in whose arms we must rest prisoners till the angel with his trumpet summons him forth to resign us? This will not make life more troublesome, but more comfortable. He may play that hath done his task. No steward need fear a just lord, when his accounts are even and always ready drawn up. If I get the son and heir to be mine, the father will never hold off. Thus living I may die at any time, and be afraid at no time. Who dies death over every day, if he does not kill death outright, at least he makes him tame with watching him." pp. 48, 49.

Our author appears in somewhat a different light in his other works. Among these are his two Lay Sermons, as we may call them. The second is full of satire and humor, of learning and gallantry, bestowed upon the power and excellences of woman. Mr. Young has omitted them, and he could not well have published them entire. We give one passage from the first, which is on Solomon's view of the vanity of all things.

"What then shall we do, or whither turn to find a repose for the soul? All the mass of creatures put together is too narrow a palace to contain the soul of man. It flies in a moment to the deeps and ocean's springs, not only to the roots of mountains, but in a moment pierces quite through the earth's condensed globe, to the stars and highest convex of the bounding sky. So far as the creature reaches, it goes and finds no rest. God only is capacious; in him do all its vast extensions rest.

Unlimited thoughts in him a limit find ; and when we do lose the creature, still we do find him. He is farther off than the soul can reach, yet nearer than it can avoid."

The second of these discourses is on the passage in Luke, "And another said, I have married a wife, and therefore I cannot come." The following extract may give us his idea of the power of beauty, which he calls "the wit of nature put into a frontispiece, the spiritual soul in figure ; and in it", he says, "are the influences of the stars."

"Beauty is an empire without a militia ; for needing neither guard nor arms, it imposes whatever does please. Experience can tell us that it has flatted all the strengths of the world. It is mistress of all that is not God ; and when it rises to be of holiness, it amounts to be enthroned with him. In woman placed alone, it has done wonders, and taking the world's conquerors by the casque, has rifled them of all their hard earned wreaths and laurels. Adam's original innocence was not armour sufficient to resist her forces. Samson's giant strength by her was cheated into bondage and servility. David's right-heartedness became inflexed and crooked. And the grave incomparable Solomon, though he could precept the erring world against all the seducing crafts of women, yet we see he could not save himself from being entangled by their demulceations. With this man the devil went his old politic way ; for his plot being to gain the man, he sets upon him by his mistress first. No doubt but he which bought the farm had a team, and the other had five yoke of oxen ; yet could not all these draw so much as a wife ; she is a perpetual enchantment that hangs upon all the retirements of man."

Mr. Young's excellently prepared volume includes over fifty of the "Resolves," and the "Observations of the Low Countries." The latter work was also published nearly thirty years ago in the Cambridge "Literary Miscellany," one of our earliest and, alas, now forgotten journals. The remarks on the Dutch, their country, pursuits, and manners, are in a style of the broadest humor, and at the same time are often distinguished for severe, sententious wisdom. We have already alluded to Felltham's letters, which are nineteen in number. His forty-one pieces in verse, or "Lusoria," as he calls them, are of very little value. They are inferior to his translations of lines from Latin authors quoted in the "Resolves." We find in them, however, what we had not observed in

his more important writings, the mention of a few learned names among his countrymen. The death of Sir R. Cotton is commemorated in a distinct poem, and a couplet from the lines on the Lady E. M. introduces a still higher name :

"A sheet of Bacon's catch'd at more, we know,
Than all sad Fox, long Holingshed, or Stow."

And here the list of his writings closes.

We had occasion before to mention some of the qualities of his style. For the most part, he expresses himself clearly and in short sentences, with very little grace, but still with much that is picturesque in the diction. Sometimes, as if by accident, he gives us a passage of surpassing beauty, that might satisfy the most fastidious modern ear. Sometimes he falls into the most puerile inversions and a most vicious kind of rhythm. Would any one take what follows for prose ?

"When after sin a Christian once considers,
He finds a shadow drawn upon his light.
The steps of night stay printed in his soul.
His shine grows lean within him, and makes him like
The moon in her declining wane."

What we have thus marked off as verse, is taken from what stands as a prose paragraph in the "Resolves," (p. 256.) There is more in the same strain ; but such a specimen might not be found elsewhere in many pages.

Felltham's use of language is often as strange and offensive as these singularities of style. Like his contemporary, Sir Thomas Browne, he delights in the manufacture of most hideous words from the Latin. This abominable license in many writers of the age, is a remarkable fact in its literary history. A novel use of the settled, popular speech is sometimes a sign of originality and invention ; and differences among writers in this particular, may have the stamp of intellectual differences. But in the case we have alluded to, there is a downright, wilful, barefaced departure from current language, and, as we believe, in a spirit of sheer affectation and pedantry. Really, the language seems to have had a more settled, domestic character in the reign of Elizabeth, than in the two or three following. It must have had the principle of life and health strong indeed, to have been able to sustain itself and preserve in a good degree its old form and look. The truth is, after all, that the learned barbarisms of the

writers in question, are always such distinct blemishes, that they increase rather than impair the force and beauty of our mother English, and thus increase our fondness for what is wholly our own.

ART. IV. — *The Library of Select Novels.* New York. J. & J. Harper. 1832.

“THE Library of Useful Knowledge” has been a fruitful prototype in this publishing age; and the reading world of England and America is inundated with “Libraries” of one kind or another, not issued like the great original, so much for the purpose of improving the knowledge of the many, by putting useful publications within the reach of their means, as for improving the finances of the publishers, by procuring under an imposing title and seeming cheapness, a sale for editions of works, many of which are dear at any price.

To all the “Libraries,” so styled, these remarks are not applicable, as some are certainly valuable publications; to others the fullest force of them may be deservedly applied, and to none more than to that, the title of which is placed at the head of this article.

When its publication was first announced, we supposed its object would be to select from the literature of this class those works, the merits of which, as exhibiting the stamp of genius and portraying the spirit and manner of the times, seemed to make them deserving of being rescued from that oblivion, to which the multitude of them rapidly and unavoidably hasten; and, by embodying them into one uniform whole, to give them a more enduring vitality and reputation, and preserve them for a succeeding age as fit and worthy memorials of the imaginative literature of the past and the present. In short, we fancied that Messrs. J. & J. Harper were to be with regard to works of fiction, like the two swans of Ariosto,* the ministers of at least temporary reputation to those works which should prove fortunate enough to attract their favorable regard.

In this anticipation we have been sadly disappointed. Though the works they have republished have doubtless

* Canto xxxv.

been selected, yet it has been done with so little discretion and judgment, that in our understanding of the word they can by no means be deemed *select*. Two or three among them are indeed nothing but reprints of works just published in England, and having no well ascertained character before they were put into the "Library," in which indeed was their first appearance in print on this side of the Atlantic.

Ten or twelve works have been published, making some twenty or twenty-four numbers of the "Library"; on some of these we shall now make a few particular remarks, in confirmation of our general observations.

"*The Young Duke*, by the Author of 'Vivian Grey.' " Vivian Grey is a flippant, trashy performance, on the whole, though exhibiting occasional traces of wit and satire, indicative of natural powers in the author, that might have been better directed. It is, however, an unfinished tale. "*The Young Duke*," though more fortunate in this respect, is in others in no wise superior to its elder brother. Its author somewhere on the title-page is pleased to announce it as a *moral* work. We should be well pleased to have his definition of *moral*. He surely cannot understand it in that sense, in which it is employed in conjunction with *religious*, as forming what a lawyer would term *part* and *parcel* of the same character, — that sense in which by some, we fear, it is used as a substitute for, and as equivalent to, *religious*. No; it certainly must be, that he uses it in the sense of its classical derivation, as merely meaning *that which relates to manners*, good, bad, or indifferent, as the case may be; the same sense in which we charitably suppose that Marmontel applied it to his celebrated "*Tales*," with such an obvious contradiction to its first mentioned and now established English meaning, that some one proposed that an *im* should be placed before the word in the list of *errata*.

In this sense "*The Young Duke*" may be a *moral* tale, but the manners which it exhibits, and into the imitation of which the work as far as it has power is likely to lead, are those of vice and prodigality, not the less deserving of reprobation because associated with gayety, splendor, and fashion.

In the style of the work, though sometimes spirited, there is a superabundance of affectation, pertness, and forced and flashy attempts at wit and humor.

"*Eugene Aram*." This work in truth we have not read.

With the real history of Eugene we are acquainted, as well as with his noted trial and defence ; and the acquaintance is any thing but favorable to his being made the hero of a work of fiction intended for promiscuous circulation among the ignorant, the susceptible, and the imaginative. Besides, the book is from the pen of the author of "Pelham," of "Devereux," and of "Paul Clifford," works, of which the tendency is, to bring into repute, if possible, folly and vice, and even crime, — works from the perusal of which we arose with much the same feeling as we have escaped from low, disreputable, and impure company, into which we had unwillingly been brought by accidental circumstances, — with a sense of contamination, a feeling as if our mind had been soiled by the contact of the grossness and vice around us. This, too, is but the first reprint of the work in this country ; and allowing it to be different from its brethren and better than they, still its reputation has not yet been settled by the voice of the public, and it therefore ought not yet to find a place in such a collection.

This last reason is also applicable to "The Smugglers" and to "Philip Augustus," the former said to be the work of a Mr. Banim, the author of several Irish tales, and the latter by the author of "De L'Orme," whose name we do not recollect ever to have heard. Banim is a writer of some graphic power, though of no extraordinary kind ; and the scenes of his stories, amid the tumults, party feuds, and insurrections of Ireland, though they may be true enough in their resemblance to the reality, yet embrace much that is not particularly gratifying to the reader, and to which the mind returns with neither pleasure nor profit.

The author of "De L'Orme" is a writer of a more pleasing cast, and more fortunate in the selection of his topics, and, as we think, in his manner of handling them ; yet we cannot but doubt his claims to be thus singled out from among a number of writers, who may serve to amuse the weary mind in its hours of relaxation ; at least a longer time should be allowed to pass over his work, and the sanction of the public should be more unequivocally expressed on its merits, than in the mere puffs of a newspaper, the value of which is very indeterminate.

"The Dutchman's Fireside" also makes its appearance in the number. This too is a new work, and on the whole,

a tolerably pleasing one, though of no great pretensions, especially to such a place. Of the reprints of older works, we notice "Anastasius," "Evelina," "Caleb Williams," and "De Vere."

The reputation of "Anastasius" is high, and though it is not in all respects a work pleasing to our particular taste, yet we should not refuse it a place in the "Library." "Evelina," if our recollection serves us aright, is a well written work, and a good specimen of its class. To "De Vere" we should willingly grant admission.

"Caleb Williams" and most of Godwin's writings, unless it be "Cloudesly" (the last), have created considerable sensation in the world of letters, and still preserve a sort of reputation which has occasioned the present selection, though it does not seem fortunate. In truth, we have never been much disposed to admire Godwin's novels. There is, indeed, in them much of power and energy, but there is too much concentration of it upon some particular trait of character, generally not pleasing, so that the delineation gives to the principal personage the appearance of laboring under some infirmity of intellect, some strong delusion of mind, that has an influence upon his whole being and actions to such a degree, as to constitute him an insane person, a *monomaniac* according to French classification. The company of such a person in real life cannot be pleasing to any one, and in the artificial life of fiction must be in the same manner disagreeable in proportion to the fidelity of the delineation. We may admire the skill and power of expression that belong to the author, but the character leaves a painful impression upon the mind. We have fancied, too, that in these works we have noticed a tendency to the doctrine of Fatalism; this would constitute a serious objection to them. For such reasons we have no wish that the duration of them should be prolonged; to be forgotten, if it were possible, would be the best fate that can fall to the author of "Political Justice"; yet if one of his works were to be taken as a representative of the number, our recollections of them would make us prefer "St. Leon."

We do not now recollect the other works entering into the composition of this "Library," as far as published, but trust that enough has been said to substantiate our general opinion as first expressed. The whole amounts merely to an

attempt to put upon the public, under the name of *select*, any thing that novelty or any kind of attraction may render likely to command a profitable sale ; and those who wish for a good selection from this species of literature, would do more wisely to make it for themselves, or under the guidance of some judicious literary friend, than to take upon trust the Messrs. Harper's selection.

A Library of Novels might be made, which would be worth possessing ; but it requires no small taste to select from the multitude of these productions, which the last and the present age has sent forth, those which are really deserving of the distinction ; and we should wish to have the responsibility of some name favorably known in taste and letters as a warrant for the goodness of the choice, ere we should be willing to trust to it.

ART. V. — *The Letters of the British Spy*. By WILLIAM WIRT, Esq. Tenth Edition, revised and corrected. To which is prefixed a *Biographical Sketch of the Author*. New York. J. & J. Harper. 1832. 12mo. pp. 260.

It is not incumbent upon us to say much of the reprint of a popular work, which has been long before the public ; of one which, like that of "*The British Spy*," has reached a tenth edition in less than thirty years from its first appearance. We should not feel bound to do it in this case, if it were not for the "*Biographical Sketch*" with which the work is introduced, and which forms a large portion of the volume.

Whether the biography of living men, who fill an important place in society, ought to be brought before the public, is at least very questionable. Its propriety may well be doubted, both as a matter of good taste and of good tendency. What mankind are most curious to know concerning those who have reached an eminent rank, is that which oftentimes it is unbecoming to relate. The forming period of life, frequently a period of great indiscretion, folly, or perverseness, we are always curious to become acquainted with, that we may learn the tendencies of character, the reachings of intellect, the disturbing influences of the passions, and all the zeal, restlessness, conflicts, victories, and defeats incident

to youth. This can in most cases be told only in a very imperfect manner, though it is no less instructive than interesting, if faithfully narrated. Then, again, in manhood and advancing years many things occur in the lives of distinguished men which are of doubtful interpretation, and which are regarded as good or ill according either to the prejudices of those who think themselves competent to form a judgment, or to the amount of evidence upon which such a judgment is founded. There are other objections to the biography of living men, among which we place the following, in the words of the author of the "Biographical Sketch" of Mr. Wirt.

"Biography has a delicate office while her subjects are yet living, as she may be accused of flattery on the one hand, and, on the other, may be thought to misplace and mistime the impartial censure, which she, no less than History, owes to truth, when, like the Egyptian tribunal, she sits in judgment on the dead. With regard to the subject himself, the mind most conscious of integrity, and the most happy in deserved success, may naturally shrink from that scrupulous analysis which is necessary to a full delineation of it. It is as naturally averse to the relation of many things, trivial in themselves, but characteristic, and which, on that account, are eagerly sought when the actors are no more, though till then they may fail to excite curiosity or interest in the public. Contemporary actors have their sensibilities also; a consideration which, in tracing the competitions and conflicts through which an individual has wrought his way to honor and influence, may require many sketches to be withheld, much of the coloring softened, and much of what may be called the material action suppressed." pp. 9, 10.

The objections here set forth, in addition to those which we have made and others which might be mentioned, are valid objections, though they are as little applicable, perhaps, to the instance before us, as they well can be to any prominent public man. Yet this, perhaps, is no reason for making an exception in favor of an individual. There still adheres to the work the evil of precedent, of contributing something to fashion, which pervades every thing, — a fashion, which, in the case under consideration, we should be very sorry to find prevalent. No doubt it is an agreeable thing to distinguished men to find their great and good deeds well spoken of, whether professional or patriotic. But there are various

ways of doing this without the set purpose of formal delineations of character, filled up with particular and chronological details, and touching upon subjects and controversies which have little to do with the literary and moral worth of the subject of them.

Such were some of our thoughts on this subject before we read the "Biographical Sketch" of the author of "*The British Spy*," which is very creditable to the writer, and very just to Mr. Wirt, who, we have no doubt, would be one of the last men to invite exaggerated praise. But there are always men before the public who have an appetite for eulogy, which is not easily cloyed; men who remind us of Cicero, when he sued so earnestly for the promised history of his consulship, of which he might enjoy the reading and the circulation during his life, as an evidence of the estimation in which he was held by the best of his countrymen. He was desirous that Luceius, the historian, should give an account of the conspiracy, separate from the general history of events, particularly in order to soothe his impatience by greater despatch, but not without a desire of appearing in his full prominence as the eloquent, moral, patriotic hero, in confounding Catiline and his minions. This he foresaw would redound more to his glory, if it were singled out as a subject by itself. But having, as he acknowledged, gone beyond the boundaries of modesty, in the boldness of importunity he overleaps those of shame, beseeching his friend, as occasion might require, to sacrifice to affection the supreme law of history, by conceding to him something more than truth would justify.* "Most unworthy of your wisdom and virtue, Marcus Tullius!" exclaims one of the commentators. "How forgetful have you become of that noble sentiment of yours, 'True glory takes root and flourishes; every thing factitious is transitory, and like the tender flower soon withers.'"

Such biographical sketches as that prefixed to the volume before us would do much to disarm us of our prejudices against historical accounts of the living. It contains a well written relation of facts, connected and interspersed with judicious remarks and speculations. Mr. Wirt was born at Bladensburg, in Maryland, on the 8th of November, 1772.

* Ciceronis *Epist. ad Familiares*. Lib. v. *Epist.* 12.

When eight years of age he lost his mother, who was a German, his father, a Swiss, having died some time before. But according to the usual course of Providence the place of his natural guardians was in a great measure supplied. He was brought up under good moral and religious influences, and such literary advantages as gave an impetus to his mind which carried him forward in a successful course of study till he was fifteen years of age, when the grammar school, at which he excelled, was broken up, and by a seeming accident he found a patron and friend to whom he ascribed much of his improvement in that critical period of life. He was employed under the roof of Mr. Edwards as an instructor of his son and nephews. Thus he was undergoing the best of all discipline in his classical studies, while he enjoyed the benefit of a small library, and the counsels and encouragement of a judicious and respected friend. After remaining in this situation for less than two years, he passed the winter of 1789, 1790, in Georgia, returned in the following spring, pursued the study of law, was admitted to practise in the autumn of 1792, "removed to Culpeper Court-house, in Virginia, and commenced his professional career there, being at the time only twenty years of age." We cannot proceed to trace the history of Mr. Wirt's progress in his profession, of his domestic affairs, of the marks of public confidence he has received, and of the public offices he has sustained, in "the Ancient Dominion"; and of his still more public station, as a distinguished functionary in the government of the Union, it is needless for us to speak.

"The British Spy" was written in 1803. In the Advertisement to the present edition, the publishers say, that, "having become possessed of a copy which has passed through the hands of the author, they eagerly embrace an opportunity of submitting a correct edition of that work to the patronage of the public. These letters were originally inserted in a daily journal ["The Virginia Argus"], and they appeared with all the imperfections to which such a mode of publication is unavoidably liable. In the present edition a variety of errors have been corrected." It is in general, so far as we have noticed, correct; but the publishers did not probably find in the "copy which has passed through the hands of the author," "*Eucalion's flood*," p.120.

This work excited great attention when it first appeared in

1803, and none the less on account of its doubtful origin. It was not long, however, before it was ascribed to its true author. The thin disguise which the "Letters" wore, purporting to be written during a tour through the United States, and supposed to have been addressed to Sheridan, was soon stripped off, and our countrymen were quick to acknowledge and claim the author as their own. Books of native origin were then few, compared with the present prolific period, and a writer of such talents could not long be concealed even if he wished to be unknown. These Letters are still in great favor, though not faultless in their style. The fresh descriptions of local scenery are not impaired by time; the delineations of character, drawn by a faithful hand, and proceeding from a keen observer, have become even more interesting, since they have ceased to be the portraits of living men; the philosophical speculations are entitled to the same respect as they were thirty years ago; and the pure moral and religious spirit which breathes through the whole is such as we like to recur to, and identify with the youth as well as advancement of one who now fills so large a space in public estimation. It would be out of place to give an analysis of this work, as if it appeared for the first time; but there are one or two passages to which we may recur, as of somewhat peculiar interest at the present period. The fourth Letter was occasioned by a visit to "the site of the Indian town Powhatan, the metropolis of the dominions of Pocahuntas's father"; and the author's descriptions of the relation between the whites and Indians, and his reflections upon it, are couched in a strain of noble eloquence dictated, we verily believe, by genuine emotion.

"The people, here, affect to wonder that the Indians are so very unsusceptible of civilization; or, in other words, that they so obstinately refuse to adopt the manners of the white men. Go, Virginians; erase, from the Indian nation, the tradition of their wrongs; make them forget, if you can, that once this charming country was theirs; that over these fields and through these forests their beloved forefathers, once, in careless gayety, pursued their sports and hunted their game; that every returning day found them the sole, the peaceful, the happy proprietors of this extensive and beautiful domain. Make them forget, too, if you can, that in the midst of all this innocence, simplicity, and bliss — the white man came; and lo! — the animated

chase, the feast, the dance, the song of fearless, thoughtless joy were over; that ever since, they have been made to drink of the bitter cup of humiliation; treated like dogs; their lives, their liberties, the sport of the white men; their country and the graves of their fathers torn from them, in cruel succession: until, driven from river to river, from forest to forest, and through a period of two hundred years, rolled back, nation upon nation, they find themselves fugitives, vagrants, and strangers in their own country, and look forward to the certain period when their descendants will be totally extinguished by wars, driven at the point of the bayonet into the western ocean, or reduced to a fate still more deplorable and horrid, the condition of slaves. Go, administer the cup of oblivion to recollections and anticipations like these, and then you will cease to complain that the Indian refuses to be civilized. But until then, surely it is nothing wonderful that a nation, even yet bleeding afresh from the memory of ancient wrongs, perpetually agonized by new outrages, and goaded into desperation and madness at the prospect of the certain ruin which awaits their descendants, should hate the authors of their miseries, of their desolation, their destruction; should hate their manners, hate their color, their language, their name, and every thing that belongs to them. No: never, until time shall wear out the history of their sorrows and their sufferings, will the Indian be brought to love the white man, and to imitate his manners.

"Were I a president of the United States, I would glory in going to the Indians, throwing myself on my knees before them, and saying to them, 'Indians, friends, brothers, O! forgive my countrymen! Deeply have our forefathers wronged you; and they have forced us to continue the wrong. Reflect, brothers; it was not our fault that we were born in your country; but now we have no other home; we have no where else to rest our feet. Will you not, then, permit us to remain? Can you not forgive even us, innocent as we are? If you can, O! come to our bosoms; be, indeed, our brothers; and since there is room enough for us all, give us a home in your land, and let us be children of the same affectionate family.' I believe that a magnanimity of sentiment like this, followed up by a correspondent greatness of conduct on the part of the people of the United States, would go further to bury the tomahawk and produce a fraternization with the Indians, than all the presents, treaties, and missionaries that can be employed; dashed and defeated as these latter means always are, by a claim of rights on the part of the white people which the Indians know to be

false and baseless. Let me not be told that the Indians are too dark and fierce to be affected by generous and noble sentiments. I will not believe it. Magnanimity can never be lost on a nation which has produced an Alknomok, a Logan, and a Pocahuntas." pp. 164 - 168.

His descriptions of persons (of their mental qualities) are in general remarkably discriminating. That of the late President Monroe, with whom he was intimately acquainted, comes, as far as we are competent to judge, very near the truth. It must have seemed to many, in 1803, to have indicated no small degree of boldness in the prophetic spirit of the author, to predict that the then Governor of Virginia might become President of the United States. "It would be matter of no surprise to me," he says, "if before his death, the world should see him at the head of the American Administration."

Since we have hinted at prophetic gifts, we cannot forbear adverting to a prediction less definite, indeed, than that noticed above, but not without meaning, contained in a journal, with the recollection of which are associated some of our fondest remembrances of the past: "From this specimen of the talents of the *British Spy*, we form high expectations of the author." *

ART. VI. — *Memoirs of JOHN FREDERIC OBERLIN*, Pastor of Waldbach, in the Ban de la Roche. From the Third London Edition. With an Introduction by the American Editor. Cambridge. 1832. Hilliard & Brown. 16mo. pp. 301.

It is true, we believe, that plain matters of fact may frequently afford more interesting and impressive exhibitions of character, than the best tales of fiction with all their advantages of romantic narrative and skilful combinations of events. The delightful story of the pastor of Waldbach in the Ban de la Roche furnishes a very happy illustration of this truth. It makes a book, which must be a favorite with every one who has the true love of moral beauty. It is a story of entire and hearty devotedness to the godlike work of doing good ;

* Monthly Anthology. Vol. I. p. 519. — An. 1804.

and we think a man has just cause to suspect himself of some wrong bias, if he can read it without experiencing that affecting and refreshing influence, which is breathed over the soul by the example of unostentatious, persevering, and energetic usefulness. Chaucer's admired description of *the Good Parson*, "rich in holy thought and work," is here finely realized.

John Frederic Oberlin was certainly an extraordinary man, — not for qualities or achievements that stand high on what is commonly called the record of fame, — but for something much better, for singleness of heart and unwearied devotion to the labors of benevolence and religion in a retired, humble sphere of duty, which could have had no charms but for one who felt deeply the conviction, that services rendered to the temporal and eternal interests of man in any situation are services rendered to God. Of the course and nature of his youthful studies at Strasburg, where he was born in 1740, the narrative before us gives no special information. We are told, however, that he pursued them with ardor and perseverance. Parental influence imbued his heart early and deeply with the principles of benevolence, disinterestedness, and piety. He devoted himself to the Christian ministry, and was strengthened in his good purposes by attending the sermons of Dr. Lorentz, a celebrated preacher at that time in Strasburg. Soon after this, the curacy of the Ban de la Roche became vacant by the removal of M. Stouber, its excellent pastor, who knew enough of the merits of the peculiar character of Oberlin to be extremely desirous of establishing him in that station. To this proposal Oberlin gladly consented. The Ban de la Roche is a remote district in the northeast part of France, one of the most rude, secluded, and uncultivated parts of the kingdom. The inhabitants of this canton, however, enjoyed that freedom of conscience in the profession of the Protestant faith, and in the celebration of the Protestant worship, which was unknown in the ancient provinces of France, — this privilege having been by express stipulation conceded to the district, when it was incorporated into the kingdom.

Oberlin, having chosen this humble but ample field of usefulness, took up his residence at Waldbach, one of the Lutheran hamlets in the district, and there commenced his labors as pastor to that and other neighbouring villages. We

have not space, nor is it necessary, to enter into the particulars of his extraordinary and most praiseworthy exertions among his uncultivated, and at first intractable parishioners. We can only say, that his ministry was a beautiful illustration of the self-sacrificing spirit in unwearied efforts to give light to the ignorant, relief to the distressed, counsel to the perplexed, and help to the feeble. Wherever good was to be done or service to be rendered, no difficulty or discouragement damped his ardor. Nor were his discretion and good sense inferior to his zeal. He adapted his efforts with great skill to the semi-barbarous condition of his people. While his deep, fervent, and patriarchal piety gave to his religious instructions a power, which even the most hardened and prejudiced could not resist, he busied himself in improving the roads and the modes of agriculture, in procuring better implements of husbandry for the people, in erecting school-houses, in the studies of the children, and in introducing new branches of industry, such as cotton-spinning and straw-platting. His share in some of these exertions was not limited to superintendence or advice, but included a great deal of personal, manual labor; and under his hands a new face was put upon the external affairs, as well as the morals and religion, of the district. His efforts in the cause of the Bible Society were highly and deservedly valued. Such in every respect were his deportment and influence, that his biography illustrates well the fine remark of Hooker, that "the life of a pious clergyman is visible rhetoric."

— "There abides

In his allotted home, a genuine Priest,
The Shepherd of his Flock; or, as a King
Is styled, when most affectionately praised,
The Father of his people. Such is he,
And rich and poor, and young and old, rejoice
Under his spiritual sway, collected round him
In this sequestered realm."

Oberlin died at a very advanced age in 1826. His character is one of those which we love to contemplate, for the same reason that we love to frequent those retired and beautiful spots of natural scenery where we seem to be alone with God, and with the spirit of purity. In reading his life we were reminded of some general traits of resemblance to the charming account of Robert Walker, the curate of Seathwaite,

given by Wordsworth in his notes to "The River Duddon." When we came to the story of Oberlin's marriage, we could not forbear a smile at the singular manner of his "waiting on Providence" for direction in the choice of a wife; but even this, when taken in connexion with the whole character of a man so sincere and simple-hearted, must be considered a respectable and amiable weakness. In general, he was remarkable for strong good sense, no less than for the pervading spirit of practical piety; and by the manner, in which he brought his good sense to bear on the secular as well as spiritual concerns of his parishioners, he gained their confidence as a man of sagacity and sound judgment. This is a point of no small importance to a clergyman. The late Thomas Scott judiciously remarked, that "when people saw that he understood things belonging to their profession, it would make them give him credit for more competency to instruct them in what pertained to his own." The tolerant and charitable spirit manifested by Oberlin towards different religious parties is worthy of all praise; for we hold the fact recorded of him to be highly honorable, that "he administered the sacrament to Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists, at the same time; and because they would not eat the same bread, he had on the plate bread of different kinds, wafer, leavened, and unleavened."

We extract an interesting account of the sort of paternal simplicity of manner, in which Oberlin sometimes instructed the peasants.

"Every Friday Oberlin conducted a service in German, for the benefit of those inhabitants of the vicinity to whom that language was more familiar than French. His congregation on a Sunday consisted, on an average, of six hundred persons, but on a Friday of two hundred; and Oberlin, laying aside all form, seemed on such occasions more like a grandfather surrounded by his children and grandchildren, to whom he was giving suitable admonition and instruction, than the minister of an extensive parish. In order that no time might be lost, he used to make his female hearers knit stockings during the service, not indeed for themselves or their families, but for their poorer neighbours, as he believed that this charitable employment need not distract their attention, or interrupt that devotional spirit which generally pervaded the Friday evening assemblies. When he had pursued for half an hour the train

of his reflections upon the portion of Scripture which he had just been reading, he would often say to them, 'Well, my children, are you not tired? — Have you not had enough? — Tell me, my friends.' To which inquiry his parishioners would generally reply, 'No, Papa, go on; — we should like to hear a little more;' though on some occasions, with characteristic frankness, the answer was, 'Enough, we think, for one time;' and the good old man would leave off in the midst of his discourse, or wait a little, and presently resume it, putting the same question again at intervals, until he saw that the attention of his congregation began to flag, or until they, perceiving that he spoke with less ease, would thank him for the things he had said, and beg him to conclude." pp. 221, 222.

The following is a very striking and happy illustration of the influence of affliction in refining and improving the character. It is taken from a letter written by Oberlin to a lady who had suffered many bereavements.

"I have before me two stones, which are in imitation of precious stones. They are both perfectly alike in color; they are of the same water, clear, pure, and clean; yet there is a marked difference between them, as to their lustre and brilliancy. One has a dazzling brightness, while the other is dull, so that the eye passes over it, and derives no pleasure from the sight. What can be the reason of such a difference? It is this. The one is cut but in a few *facets*; the other has ten times as many. These *facets* are produced by a very violent operation; it is requisite to cut, to smooth, and polish. Had these stones been endued with life, so as to have been capable of feeling what they underwent, the one which has received eighty *facets* would have thought itself very unhappy, and would have envied the fate of the other, which, having received but eight, had undergone but a tenth part of its sufferings. Nevertheless, the operation being over, it is done for ever: the difference between the two stones always remains strongly marked; that which has suffered but little, is entirely eclipsed by the other, which alone is held in estimation, and attracts attention. May not this serve to explain the saying of our Saviour, whose words always bear some reference to eternity: 'Blessed are they that mourn, for they shall be comforted.' — Blessed, whether we contemplate them apart, or in comparison with those who have not passed through so many trials. Oh! that we were always able to cast ourselves into his arms, like little children, — to draw near unto him, like helpless lambs, — and ever to ask of him, patience, resignation, an entire surrender to his will,

faith, trust, and a heartfelt obedience to the commands which he gives to those who are willing to be his disciples." pp. 103, 104.

We should be glad, if we had room, to transfer to our pages many other passages in these excellent "*Memoirs.*" The book must, we think, be popular, — popular, we mean in the best sense of the word, and permanently so; for the interest it creates is founded on feelings, which lie among the deepest and purest in the human breast. It is reprinted from the third London edition. The American editor, the Rev. Henry Ware, Jun., Professor of Pulpit Eloquence and the Pastoral Care in Harvard University, has enriched the volume with an Introduction, full of stirring thoughts, and animated with the best spirit, which cannot fail to be read with edification by every one who is in preparation for the sacred office, or is already engaged in its duties. We think he has done the public a valuable favor by the labor bestowed on the republication of this book. We heartily recommend it to our readers, as a volume in which they will find a most instructive exhibition of the power of a good and useful life, of true spirituality unmingled with any degree of cant or parade, and of devotedness to the glory of God and the welfare of man. It should be in the hands of every clergyman and every theological student; for the lessons to be gathered from it must be to them peculiarly exciting and impressive. It should be in the hands of every one, who loves the study of moral excellence; for it cannot be read without inspiring the conviction that goodness is the truest wisdom, and that we wrong our immortal nature if we suppose that any honor is to be preferred to the honor of doing what we may to make our fellow-men wiser and better.

ART. VII. — *Bibliotheca Classica, or a Dictionary, &c.*

By J. LEMPRIERE, D. D. Seventh American Edition. Revised and corrected, and now for the first time divided under separate heads into Three Parts. Part I. *Geography, Topography, &c.* Part II. *History, Antiquities, &c.* Part III. *Mythology.* By LORENZO L. DA PONTE and JOHN D. OGILBY. New York. 1832. Collins & Hannay. 8vo. pp. 752.

THE seventh American edition of Lempriere's "Classical Dictionary" comes before the public, under rather extraordinary circumstances. The editors inform us, that the original work is a very bad one, as all the world knew before; and that the London "Journal of Education," which must be believed of course, as it has on its outside cover "names beyond all competition in letters"; — "appears to have set on it the final seal of absolute reprobation." To this sentence they incline to subscribe, and so full was their conviction of the utter worthlessness of Lempriere, that they had intended to rewrite every article, and to introduce the necessary new ones. Before, however, they could prepare for the commencement of this task by getting the necessary works from Europe, "the call of their publisher required them to begin"; and the nature of their contract was such, that they were not at liberty to disregard the call. Here then we are informed of a contract, which obliged the editors to prepare an edition of a worthless book without the necessary helps; and at the same time of an intention to rewrite every article of the original Lempriere. What favor can they expect to find with the public after such an avowal; or what credit should be given them for an intention, which their own contract rendered it impossible for them to fulfill?

But let us see what they have done. In the first place, they have separated the provinces of geography, history, and mythology, in order not to spread truth and fable on the same leaf before the boy. This we are disposed to regard as useless labor, and the same end might have been answered, if necessary, by putting the abbreviations *Geog.*, *Mythol.*, *Hist.*, at the head of the respective articles. A boy might, indeed, possibly confound Pelion and Pelias by seeing these names placed in close vicinity, or even take St. Nilus for the

river Nile, or *Ægyptus* the father of fifty sons for *Ægyptus* the country; but to err is human, and the same human frailty might induce him to look for father Eridanus among the mythological beings, or for Styx and Cocytus among the rivers. But apart from this, it is impossible in classical, especially in Greek antiquity, to draw the line between fact and *mythos*, and to separate them must therefore be often arbitrary. The work before us will readily furnish proofs of this assertion. Suppose, for instance, a boy were reading "The Suppliants" of Euripides, where Theseus and Adrastus figure together: he looks into his new Lempriere, and finds Adrastus an historical personage, and Theseus a mythological one; while, in matter of fact, the former is for us almost a mere creature of poetry, but the latter, having lived in the traditions and literature of civilized Athens, being considered even by her orators as the father of liberty, has become the subject of history. Thus, too, we find in the historical department Amphictyon, a name plainly invented to stand as the founder of the celebrated council; whilst Hellen his father, who has at least as good a title to appear there, is thrust among such people as Jupiter and Hercules. Even Hercules himself might set up such a claim with some shadow of justice, since that of Busiris whom he slew in Egypt is admitted. Cecrops again has a place in history, while Aglauros, Pandrosos, and Herse, his daughters according to some of the ancients, are nothing but mythological beings. Now Cecrops was conceived of by the Athenians as one of the *autochthons*, and was represented as half man and half serpent, and the story of his having led a colony from Egypt to Athens, if we except a broken passage of Diodorus, rests only on the scholiasts and lexicographers.

The second change which the editors profess to have made, is the expunging of passages offensive to delicacy and morality from the mythological articles. This is all very well, but let it be understood that the fifth and sixth editions were treated in the same manner by another person; so that the credit of the design should rest with him. As for the manner of the execution, since the editors say themselves that the offensive matter was not *thoroughly* eradicated before, we may conclude that it was very nearly so, or they would have used stronger language. If we must have heathen mythology, we cannot avoid having with it much that

is evil; and we venture to assert that there is hardly a crime which may not be found recorded upon more than one of the pages even of this immaculate edition.

The third change which the editors have made, is the introduction of many new articles, and of passages intended to correct the errors of the original work. There are about twenty such in the Mythological part, some of which are trifling and useless; in the Historical part we have seen but three, of which one is inserted to cast ridicule upon the editor of the fifth and sixth editions for inquiring where Annibal could have found vinegar enough to soften the rocks on his passage across the Alps. That editor is said also manifestly to incline to receive this story. What his private opinions are we cannot say; but to judge from his remarks inserted in the article "Annibal," to which reference is made, the charge is quite unfounded. In the Geographical part the changes have been great; and here we will let the editors speak for themselves.

"As the Geographical department has always been held the most important, at the same time that it was the most incorrect in the original work, it will be observed that this department has claimed the principal care of the editors. The addition of many new articles, in all, it is believed, amounting to several hundred, was the smallest part of their labor; the greater number of all those which were to be found in former editions being entirely re-written in this. The geography of Italy and Greece has recently been admirably illustrated by the research and the labors of many learned scholars; but no writer has succeeded in describing more accurately or more eloquently the interesting cities, rivers, and mountains of those countries, all equally connected with the most pleasing associations of the classical scholar, than the Rev. J. A. Cramer in his Geographical descriptions of Ancient Greece. The results of this able antiquary's investigations the editors have freely transferred to their pages, having put to the test of a strict comparison with the ancient authorities the passages of which they have thus availed themselves." *Preface.*

We have several remarks to make upon this extract. In the first place, we question much, — notwithstanding that others have asserted it, — whether this department is the most important. Geography must be learnt from a separate treatise and an Atlas, or it will never be known. What accurate or

connected idea of the ancient world can a boy get by turning over the pages of a classical dictionary? Nor are fullness and exactness so very important here; fullness will deter from reading the article through, and the utmost exactness can never give a distinct idea of situation. And to give all the historical relations of places would fill several such volumes as the one now before us.

In the second place, we incline to believe, contrary to what the editors assert, that the historical part, left untouched in the present edition, has more and grosser imperfections in it than the geographical; and to justify this belief we will give three or four examples, — the first to which we turned.

Antiphon. This orator, the master of Thucydides, and one of the first men of his time, as the history of the Peloponnesian war shows, is entirely omitted, although his works stand in every collection of the Attic orators.

Phalaris. "There are some letters extant written by a certain Abaris to Phalaris with their respective answers." Out of one hundred and forty-eight, in Boyle's edition, there is only one to Abaris with his answer. "But they are supposed by some to be spurious." We should like to know who, since Bentley wrote, has imagined them to be genuine.

Demades. "One of his orations is extant." A fragment only of an oration of this unprincipled man (who, notwithstanding, is one of Mitford's worthies) upon his twelve years' administration of the finances, has come down to us.

Lycurgus. "Some of his orations are extant." Every body acquainted with the Attic orators knows of the single preserved speech of this distinguished man and fervid orator.

Hyperides. "One of his orations remains." A small fragment of his Funeral oration is preserved by Stobæus, and forms nineteen lines in Gaisford's ed. (Tit. 124, No. 36.) Two other still smaller fragments of his Deliac oration may be found mentioned in Ruhnken's Hist. Crit. Oratt. Græc. (p. lxx., before Rutilius Lupus), and in Casaubon's Notes upon Athenæus (vol. ii. col. 719, ed. 1612), to say nothing of smaller citations. Reiske, indeed, saw fit to refer two orations found among the works of Demosthenes to this orator; but his reasons, like his criticisms, have not found favor with scholars.

Athenæus. The first two, part of the third, and almost the whole of the fifteenth book of the *Deipnosophistæ* are

lost, says Lempriere. It should have been, — the first, second, and part of the third book exist only in a copious epitome, which Eustathius made use of for the whole work, whenever he had occasion to cite it. The fifteenth book is nearly entire, and about as large as the fourteenth. There was, indeed, a time almost three centuries ago, when that book was more imperfect, but Canter edited a large fragment of it in his "*Novæ Lectiones*," as Casaubon mentions in the Preface to his Notes (vol. ii. ed. 1612), and we suppose Lempriere drew from some writer anterior to that period, or else, as in another case, — for we cannot now stop to ascertain the fact, — he may have drawn his information from Vossius, and mistaken the sense of that writer.

These specimens are enough to make us suspect every article, in the Historical part, of gross inaccuracy. And what more can be said of the Geographical? unless indeed Lempriere has confounded countries, as the present editors have done in their Preface; where they say, that Mr. Cramer has described the cities, rivers, and mountains of Italy in his description of Ancient Greece. For as we have found no such confusion in Mr. Cramer himself, who has kept Italy and Greece apart in his separate works, we must throw that confusion upon the editors themselves, who seem hardly to know from what books they made their most copious extracts.

Our readers will be no less surprised than we ourselves were after we had written thus far, to learn that several of the mistakes just now pointed out were corrected by the editor of the fifth and sixth editions. For what purpose then do these new editors return to the original work, unless to "set the seal of absolute reprobation" upon their own labors?

The Geographical articles may be considered as to authorities, matter, and accuracy of citation. The greater number of them are either extracted or made up from Mr. Cramer's works on Greece and Italy, whose plan, though not so extensive as Mr. Kruse's "*Hellas*," resembles it in collecting the notices of modern travellers and combining them with ancient accounts. Sometimes the editors have not quoted Mr. Cramer, but only his authorities, either through carelessness or a desire of seeming learned. The other works cited are those of Malte-Brun, D'Anville, and such others as the editors could lay their hands on, in the absence of the

necessary works from Europe, among which they assign a high place to Heylin's "Cosmography." The articles thus prepared are many of them altogether too long for the nature of the work. Who wants, for instance, seven closely printed columns about Hetruria, or ten about Greece, or five about Spain, or the same number about the Huns, in a Classical Dictionary?

There are about three thousand articles in this part of the Dictionary; in Mannert's various catalogues at the end of his volumes, there are over nine thousand names, according to a rough computation. Now, in the space allotted to geography, they might have introduced many more, or, if that were not necessary, might have spared almost a hundred pages of matter, valuable in its place, but out of place in a Classical Dictionary.

The editors, in the extract from the Preface already given, claim to have put to the test of a strict comparison with the ancient authorities, the passages from Mr. Cramer, of which they have availed themselves. Now those who are at all versed in the laborious employment of comparing a writer with his authorities, know that it would be impossible in the evenings of three months, which was the time spent in preparing this edition, to verify one tenth part of Mr. Cramer's citations, if nothing were done besides. But let us see from two or three examples how much strictness of comparison has been used.

Bassæ, the editors inform us, was a village of Arcadia, near Mount Cotylius. Mr. Cramer calls it a spot, translating the word used by Pausanias (*χωριον*) with great propriety, as does Sir William Gell also in describing the place (Itin. of Morea, p. 83.) Cotylius ought to be Cotylium, for though Cramer, Siebelis, and Mannert, following the Latin translation, give this ending to the word, Mr. Dodwell in his travels, and Mr. Müller in *Die Dorer*, give the right ending, Cotylium, according to the Greek text. For a third blunder in the same article *Setinus* instead of *Ictinus*, we suppose the press must be chargeable, as Mr. Cramer, from whom the information given (excepting the first mistake), is derived, has that name right. This article with its three mistakes, if admitted, should have been incorporated with Phigalea; for if a person who had heard of the Phigalean marbles in the British museum should wish to know what they were, he must seek

this insignificant word *Bassæ* for an account of the temple from which they were taken, and yet there is no intimation given that these are the marbles so called, Mr. Cramer having accidentally omitted to mention that circumstance in his work.

Abæ, the first name in the work. Here the editors have departed from Mr. Cramer, and looked into Pausanias to misquote him. "Pausanias asserts, that it [the temple of Apollo at Abæ] was but half destroyed at first, and like many other Grecian temples was suffered to remain in that condition as a monument of Persian hostility." Now Pausanias says only, that *he thinks* it must have been half burnt in the Persian war: he would not assert it positively, for there had been several changes in the condition of the building before he wrote.

Callium. There are two mistakes of printing here. *Calliar* should be *Calliæ*, and *Liv.* iii. 3, *Liv.* xxxvi. 30, as Mr. Cramer has it. We have found the same incorrectness elsewhere. Sometimes one writer is turned into two, thus: *Ammian*—*Marcellin*, *Heyl*—*Cosm*. Sometimes the citations are wrong, sometimes the press is wrong.

We will refer to but two more articles as specimens of the work, which, together with those already named and one or two more for which we have no room, were the first which we consulted.

Chersonesus. After mentioning two peninsulas, Peloponnesus and that of Thrace, the editors say, "Next to the Peloponnesus, and scarcely less noted, was the Chersonesus Cimbrica, now Holstein and Jutland"—Why next to the Peloponnesus, if another peninsula had been mentioned between? And how could so strange an assertion be put down upon paper as that the Cimbric Chersonesus was scarcely less noted than the core of Greece; when, down to the time of Alexander, but one Greek had been known to penetrate into the north of Germany, and he was considered of no authority, and when the knowledge possessed by the Romans concerning that quarter was extremely imperfect? We know not, indeed, where it could have been noted, unless among its own savage inhabitants; like "the town in western climes, to those that dwell therein well known."

Caledonia. "Eumenius, the first that mentions the Caledonians." There seem to be two mistakes here. First,

Tacitus mentions, if not the Caledonii, at least the "Caledoniam incolentes populi" and the "rutilæ Caledoniam habitantium comæ," (Agric. § 11, § 25, ed. Oberlin.) Secondly, Eumenius according to so good a scholar as Valesius, (on Amm. Marcel. xxvii. 8, 5, ed. Wagner.), has *Dicaledones*, and not *Dico Caledones*, as it stands in some editions; so that he does not mention them at all.

Our readers will think by this time that there was no great need of having it told that this edition "was the result of three months' labor bestowed on it by the editors in the evenings of days devoted to professional avocations." And still more will they be at a loss to conjecture what need there was of such a hasty, crude edition, when it was known that an industrious and learned scholar was making a complete revision of the work, and had already, we believe, put part of his new edition in the press. And they will, we are persuaded, be of our opinion, that, if he prosecutes his task with faithfulness and judgment, without being led astray by theories and misplaced learning, the present edition will be as speedily forgotten, as it seems to have been entirely uncalled for.

ART. VIII. — *JAHN'S Biblical Archæology*. Translated from the Latin, with Additions and Corrections. By THOMAS C. UPHAM, Professor of Moral and Intellectual Philosophy and of the Hebrew Language in Bowdoin College. Third Edition. Andover. Mark Newman. 1832. 8vo. pp. viii. and 573.

THE Hebrew nation is perhaps the oldest nation now upon earth, — certainly the oldest of the origin and early character of which we have authentic records. This consideration, if there were no other, might recommend these records, and whatever may aid in their illustration, to the attention of the antiquary. And so far as antiquaries exercise an influence upon the public taste and morals, it might be well if they would sometimes desert the seats of classic fame for Palestine, and would transfer to the tents of the patriarchs, to the heroes in the conquest of Canaan, to the period of Samuel's paternal supremacy or of David's infant monarchy, a part of the absorbing interest which they feel in whatever can claim kindred with Athens, Thebes, or Troy. In the Hebrew com-

monwealth we behold a state of society rude, indeed, and barbarous, but yet characterized by honesty, sincerity, reverence for truth, and admiration of virtue. And the frequent contemplation of the early character and habits of the Hebrew worthies might do much towards restoring domestic manners and social intercourse to that simplicity, which, as it is the necessary concomitant of the lowest, is the demand of the highest intellectual refinement.

The study of Hebrew antiquities, interesting on account of the *early origin* of the nation to which they relate, is rendered doubly so by its *present condition and character*. It has been well said that the English nation has no present existence, — that it exists only in precedent and on the statute-book. Much less can a present existence be predicated of the Jews. They lead in some respects the lives of the patriarchs, their fathers. Like them they are strangers and sojourners; like them they refuse to provide themselves with a permanent abode; like them they look for a bright and fertile land of promise; like them they are destined to bequeath to their posterity the *hope alone* of such a land. Changing fashions affect them not. Public opinion they regard not. The revolutions of empires leave their condition unaltered. They still derive their domestic habits, their modes of social intercourse, their hopes of honor and prosperity, from the records of gray antiquity, and the mystic vision of the seer. Thus their national archæology is in many particulars the portraiture of their present character.

To the religious man the early history and condition of the Israelites acquire a new interest from their having been selected as the subjects of a divine code of laws, which extended its precepts to every department of life and manners. Their police, their modes of agriculture, their domestic relations, and all things, are divinely sanctioned. Their food is of God's appointment. Their festivals and fasts are sacred to him. Their very clothing is adorned with his precepts. Every thing about them is ritually holy to the Lord.

The internal condition of the Hebrews proffers a yet higher claim to our regard, when we consider the interesting relation which they bore to the surrounding nations. They were, indeed, superstitious, ungrateful, and rebellious; but yet in their prosperity they stood forth alone as the worshippers of one invisible God, and in the depth of adver-

sity they bore tacit testimony to the unseen agency of his justice. They were unskilful in the arts, and strangers to science; but at the same time they produced a literature, which surpasses in sublimity, beauty, and moral purity the noblest productions of the most enlightened nations. They were often lame in counsel and weak in battle; but yet they retained their separate existence, scarcely ever lost a living citizen, and were constantly receiving proselytes from the neighbouring tribes. And when they were on the brink of ruin, the Messiah came forth from the lineage of David, was initiated into their religion, and by his observance of their customs, his attendance upon their ritual worship, and his choice of apostles from among them, associated himself with them in the minds of all who should ever after reverence him as the Son of God, as a Prince and a Saviour.

Indeed when we take him and his revelation into view, Jewish antiquities become a subject not merely of curiosity and intense interest, but of immense practical importance. He and his apostles allude constantly to the soil, climate, and productions of Palestine, and the circumstances, manners, and prejudices of its inhabitants. Without a knowledge of these, it is impossible, in reading the New Testament, to separate the figurative from the literal,—the local from the general,—what is of temporary learning from what is of perpetual obligation. In fact, one destitute of this knowledge would be in most cases obliged either to acquiesce in a crude mass of truth, superstition, and absurdity; or to reject the Christian system, because its records were unintelligible and therefore incredible. But even if such a man could escape gross error and gather from the Gospel all essential truth, he would be unable to discern the peculiar appropriateness and beauty of our Saviour's discourses. Not only are these adapted to the occasions on which they were delivered; but they are full of delicate allusions to the scene, the season, and the situation and feelings of the hearers. We may illustrate these remarks by an example drawn from John vii. 37, "In the last day, that great day of the feast, Jesus stood and cried, *If any man thirst, let him come unto me and drink.*" That this figure is not of itself unapt, every one must at first sight admit; but "Is it not very unnatural," one might reasonably ask, "to introduce a discourse with so bold and rhapsodical an exclamation"? The student of Jew-

ish antiquities will give a prompt answer. Jesus was then attending the joyous feast of tabernacles, each day of which and especially the last, was consecrated to the full enthusiasm of religious mirth. Each morning the priests drew water in a golden vessel from the fountain of Siloam, carried it to the temple and made a libation of it southwest of the altar, while amid the gladdening strains of cymbal, psaltery, and harp, the people sung with transport, "With joy shall ye draw water from the wells of salvation." The echo of that triumphant song had not died away, when the Heaven-born Teacher called the attention of his countrymen to Himself,—the *well of salvation*,—the perennial fountain of life to the thirsty soul. How ineffably sublime this spiritualization of a rite, till then pompous indeed, but senseless!

▲ It is pleasing to find that each of the prominent sects of Christians has furnished, in the biblical researches of its members, permanent and precious monuments of its reverence for the Scriptures. A union, which takes place no where else, is effected on the table of the theologian, who in the same critical inquiry consults perhaps an Archæology compiled by a Catholic, a Calvinistic Commentary, a Lexicon by a Lutheran divine, a Gospel Harmony,—the result of Unitarian research, and a volume of critical disquisitions by a visionary, yet deeply learned Neologist. We are indebted to a Catholic priest for the valuable work now before us.

"The author of the original work is Dr. John Jahn, who was formerly Professor of Oriental Languages in the University of Vienna. It was at first written in the German language, and extended through five octavo volumes. Being of such extent and accompanied with numerous plates, it was found too expensive for common use, and after numerous solicitations to that effect, was abridged by the author himself, translated into Latin, and printed in a single octavo volume. The translation into English, which is now presented to the public, is made from the second edition of the Latin Abridgment, printed at Vienna in 1814." p. iii.

This work is accurate, concise, and full. Without the parade of learning (unless the introduction of words in the Oriental tongues, which however are not left untranslated, be so considered), it gives the result of the most profound and laborious research. It is divided into Three Parts,—the *first* treating of domestic, the *second* of political, the

third of sacred antiquities. Each of these divisions embraces an historical sketch from the days of Abraham to those of Christ.

Mr. Upham's translation is well executed, the additions which he has made to the original work are valuable, and the only ground of regret is, that he has not incorporated with it more of the fruits of his own research. It was first published in 1823. The second edition appeared in 1827, enriched by a full Index of all the passages of Scripture illustrated or even referred to in the work, with the section or sections in which reference is made to each. This Index is of course retained in the present edition. We hope that whenever a new edition is called for, the translator will see fit to append to it an alphabetical index of subjects, which is all that is needed to make it as convenient and useful a reference-book as can be any where found of the same size.

Ever since the publication of the first edition, this translation has been advantageously known and much used by the members of the *clerical* profession. It is one of our principal objects in penning this article to recommend it to *laymen*. It is admirably fitted to enlighten and assist any intelligent and inquiring reader of the Bible. We close this brief notice by extracting a section from this work on the *importance of Biblical Archaeology to the theologian*, premising that the service which this science is said to do for the theologian, the compend of it now before us may profitably discharge for the private Christian.

"I. It enables him to throw himself back more fully into the age, the country, and the situation of the sacred writers and their cotemporaries, and to understand and estimate the nature and the tendencies of the objects, which are there presented to him. II. It puts him in a better situation to detect allusions to ceremonies, customs, laws, peculiarities in the face of the country, &c., and to make himself sure of the precise import of the passages where such allusions occur. III. It proffers him new ability in answering the objections of the opposers of Revelation, the greater part of which originate in ignorance of antiquity. IV. It presents to his view distinctly and impressively the adaptation of the different dispensations, the object of which was to preserve and transmit religion, to the character and situation of the age. V. It shows him where to separate moral precept and religious truth from the drapery of figurative language, in which they are clothed; since language,

considered as a medium of thought, takes its character in a measure from that of the times. VI. It enables him to enter into the nature and spirit of the arguments in favor of the authenticity of the sacred books. VII. That an acquaintance with Biblical Archæology is of great importance is evident from this also, that all who have undertaken to explain the Scriptures, while ignorant of it, have committed very great and very numerous mistakes." pp. 1, 2.

ART. IX. — *The Life of Gouverneur Morris, with Selections from his Correspondence and Miscellaneous Papers; detailing Events in the American Revolution, the French Revolution, and in the Political History of the United States.* By JARED SPARKS. Boston. Gray & Bowen. 1832. 3 vols. 8vo.

GOVERNEUR MORRIS was born at Morrisania, near the city of New York, January 31, 1752. He was descended from ancestors who had for several generations been distinguished in the political and judicial history of the Provinces of New York and New Jersey. He was graduated at the College in the city of New York, in May, 1768, at the early age of sixteen. While in that institution he was distinguished for his ready talents, for vivid imagination, and for his ardent love of Latin and the Mathematics. The orations which he delivered on taking his first and second degrees, though faulty in style and crowded with metaphor, exhibit a full share of intellectual vigor and an under current of sober thought, and in this respect greater maturity and power than we should expect from one so young. There was not, indeed, any such precocious display as we sometimes see, gratifying the cherished hopes of fond parents, only to prostrate them afterwards by the destruction of the blossom; but young Morris gave good promise and reasonable expectation of future worth and distinction.

On leaving college he commenced the study of the law with William Smith, the historian of New York, a very distinguished jurist, and at a subsequent period Chief Justice of the Province. Under the guidance of this excellent master, the pupil made rapid progress in the elementary studies of the profession, neither alarmed by its technical terrors that

startle so many *in limine*, nor drawn aside by the fascinations of literature nor by those pleasures that so often prove fatal to young men of ardent temperament. Even at that early age he displayed more sober and vigorous thought, more ripe discretion of judgment than belonged to many of the thinking men of that day. A project had been brought forward in the Assembly of the Province in 1769, to raise money by issuing bills of credit to be put out on loan, and from the accruing interest to pay the debts of the Province, &c. This was the old practice which had prevailed in Massachusetts as early as 1690, and in other Provinces at different periods, and whose direct and certain tendency always was towards individual and general bankruptcy; for these bills of credit in fact, had no substantial funds to meet them, and represented no real value. Morris saw the subject in the true light; and, though scarcely eighteen years old, he wrote with ability against the measure, and gave unerring manifestations of his future distinction in the intricate science of finance.

In October, 1771, before he was twenty years of age, Morris was called to the bar.

"His financial discussions," says his biographer, "and some other proofs of his abilities, had made him known to the principal men of the Province; and a volunteer address to a jury about the time of his being licensed, on some occasion in which the community took a deep interest, was represented by the hearers as an extraordinary display of eloquence and skilful reasoning in so young a man. With the advantages of his family name, a fine person, an agreeable elocution, active and industrious habits, talents, and ambition, no young man in the province was thought to exhibit a fairer promise of rapid advancement, and ultimate eminence in his profession." pp. 15, 16.

Doubtless had he continued at the bar, his professional success would have been distinguished; and at that period he decidedly preferred the forum to the hazardous paths of politics. But a time was rapidly approaching when the country would demand the public exertions, either in the cabinet or in the field, of her worthiest and bravest sons. Meanwhile he was assiduous in his labors, and tradition preserves the account of his rapid progress to eminence in a profession that tasks to the utmost the intellect, industry, and patience of its disciples.

Before the breaking out of the revolutionary war, and indeed for some months after, he, with most others looked forward, though with daily diminishing confidence, to a reunion with Great Britain; and easily fell into the prevailing doctrine of the patriots of the day, in relation to an accommodation of differences, by yielding to the parent country the *regulation of trade*, and reserving to the colonies the entire power of taxation, and the regulation of their internal police. The progress of events soon cured his dislike of politics, and we find him taking an early and decided stand in favor of his country. To estimate the importance of this step, and the sacrifice it compelled him to make, we must recollect that at the beginning of the war the Province of New York was full of those who adhered to the royal government. Parties, perhaps, were nearly balanced in numbers; but in wealth and probably also in talents and education, the tory interest was by far the more powerful. His distinguished friends, his nearest relatives were of that party; but he disregarded their wishes, and what is always more difficult to resist, the earnest entreaties of a beloved mother, and came out without a moment's hesitation, heartily and boldly, on the side of his country; "and to the end of the contest stood in the front ranks of those most distinguished for their patriotism, fortitude, and constancy."

In the spring of 1775, Morris was elected delegate to the first Provincial Congress in New York, and continued a member of that body by successive elections, with one exception, for more than two years. In all questions of finance, and indeed on almost every question, his was the leading mind, influencing and controlling the opinions of older men around him, at a period in his own life which is generally that of preparation for its busy scenes. In the very first Provincial Congress it became necessary to provide for raising money to defray the heavy expense of the new order of things, and to put the Province in a state of defence; and Morris was placed upon the committee appointed to take the subject into consideration. But trade in every department was stagnant, and whence then was money to be obtained? It could not be raised by taxation, for the great body of the people had nothing to pay with but the produce of their farms, which could not be changed into cash or any equivalent. The only resort, therefore, was to paper-money, not as

to a scheme excellent in itself, but because, poor as it was, it was the *only* scheme that could be adopted, the only "*money sinew*" of the war. The report upon the subject, drafted by Morris, was adopted without amendment or change.

"When it was read and received, a day was fixed for its being resumed; and on motion of Mr. Morris it was agreed, that the doors should be open on that day, and the merchants and others of the city and colony invited to attend and hear the debates. It was discussed accordingly in presence of a thronged audience, and Mr. Morris's speech on that occasion was listened to with admiration, and looked upon as an extraordinary display of argument and eloquence in a young man of twenty-three. The knowledge he manifested of a most intricate subject, which is seldom mastered by years of experience, the force of his reasoning, the ingenuity of his illustrations, a manner at once dignified and persuasive, an elocution smooth and unembarrassed, confidence in his own powers, and a deep sense of the importance of his subject, all these conspired to quicken his energies and strengthen his efforts, till he found his way to the hearts of his hearers, and carried captive their understandings. It was a day of glory and auspicious moment to the young orator, long remembered and treasured up in the minds of the people, as a precursor of future success and eminence." p. 39.

In May, 1776, Morris was again a member of the Provincial Congress, and this was by far the most memorable session of that body. We find him here the leader in debate on almost every important question, and perhaps the most influential man in that Assembly. Grave matters were to be discussed, viz. the assuming of independence, and the formation of a new plan of government. The forming of a new government was in reality a declaration of independence. On both topics Morris was the most prominent in debate. Some ten or eleven pages from the fragments which have been preserved of his speech on the subject of a new Constitution, are inserted by Mr. Sparks, and they do justice to the early fame of the orator, who in the course of his remarks urges with power and zeal the necessity of entire separation from Great Britain, and of assuming independence. This was in June, 1776, after the Virginia resolves had been received, but before it was known what ground would be taken

in the Continental Congress, where the question was under discussion with closed doors. Morris reasoned well from the faith that was in him; and from an intimate acquaintance with the character of the American people, he partially drew aside the veil that separates the future from the present, and pointed out to his audience something of the coming strength and greatness of his country. We find him again distinguishing himself in the Convention of 1777, that framed a form of government for the new State, and endeavouring to infuse a sufficient degree of strength into the constitution to preserve its continuity and duration.

We do not purpose to mention in detail the various offices he held during the war, where all his labors were active, energetic, and sagacious, but pass directly to the winter of 1778, when he first took his seat in the Continental Congress. "He had now," says Mr. Sparks, "been nearly three years in public life, and he entered Congress with a reputation for talents, general intelligence, zeal, and activity in business, probably not surpassed by that of any other person of his age in the country, being not yet twenty-six years old." Here he manifested the same unremitting industry, the same learning, zeal, and forecast that had already given him weight and consideration in the community. On the very day of taking his seat he was appointed on the committee that was directed to proceed to the head-quarters of the American army, and consult with the commander-in-chief upon the best means of putting the army on a good footing for the next campaign. Our readers will recollect that this was at the most disastrous period of the American war. The troops after the long and almost disheartening campaign of 1777, were in winter-quarters at Valley Forge, suffering from the want of food and clothing, and from exposure to the severities of the winter. The regiments were fast wearing away under the wretched system of short enlistments, and the army in general was badly organized from the circumstance that so much of its detail was necessarily entrusted to subordinate officers, who were not possessed of the requisite skill or experience. Morris, with the other members of the committee, repaired to the camp, and remained there nearly three months, and at that time formed an intimate friendship with General Washington, that ever after continued warm and unwavering. General Washington laid before the com-

mittee a full account of the condition of the army "pointing out the disorders and deficiencies together with their causes, and suggesting in detail such reforms and improvements as he considered essential to put the military establishment on a respectable footing." The plan of Washington, luminous, comprehensive, and minute, embracing not merely the *military arrangement*, but the *entire economy of the army*, was adopted by the committee, and made the basis of their report, which was approved by Congress. Washington was also very anxious that some *permanent* provision should be made for the officers of the army by the nation; not on his own account, for every one knows that he declined receiving any compensation beyond the mere payment of his expenses during the war, but because of the deep interest he felt in the army, and the desire he had that it should be commanded by faithful and competent men. Morris entered fully into the views which extended to half-pay for life, and urged them, but unsuccessfully, in Congress; and all that could be obtained was a pitiful vote "that the half-pay to officers should continue only seven years, and that each non-commissioned officer and soldier who remained in the army till the end of the war should receive a reward of eighty dollars." Soon after his return to Congress from Valley Forge, he prepared a very long report upon the actual state of public affairs, and took up the subject of the finances and the great waste in disbursing the public money. "It is," says Mr. Sparks, "a remarkable evidence of his industry, close observation, and the minute knowledge he had acquired of the proceedings in all the civil and military branches of the government."

A highly important service rendered by Morris while in Congress, and the one considered as the most important by Mr. Sparks, was that rendered by him as one of the committee to meet the British commissioners, the bearers of Lord North's celebrated conciliatory propositions. The eyes of the British ministry were a little opened to the difficulty of subjugating the colonies after the bad success of Burgoyne and Clinton, and the "empty victories" of Howe. The ministry were willing to give up the old claim to a right of *taxation*, and authorized the commissioners to treat on all the questions in dispute; and two bills were introduced in Parliament in pursuance of this object. In Congress these bills

were referred to a committee consisting of Morris, Drayton, and Dana. The report was drawn up by Morris, and was unanimously adopted by Congress. The committee saw nothing in the bills but an insidious design, under the specious pretence of conciliation, to divide the country and injure the cause of liberty; and further reported that Congress ought not to treat with Great Britain, "unless, as a preliminary, the British fleets and armies should be withdrawn, and the independence of the United States acknowledged in express and positive terms." This last was the same preliminary that Mr. Jay, one of our commissioners, that concluded the treaty of peace with Great Britain at the close of the war, required, before he would consent to treat, and which, by perseverance in his resolution, he finally succeeded in obtaining.

Lord North's commissioners made the matter worse in their first letter to Congress, by venturing upon some reflections on the conduct of France in joining the United States. This of course was highly offensive, and it was some time before Congress would condescend to take notice of the letter. But at length, when an answer was given, it was much to the same effect as the report of Morris, with the addition that no treaty of peace could be made without the assent of France.

"In the management of the business in Congress, and in the views of the subject which went abroad, and made impressions on the public, Mr. Morris must be considered as having a chief share. He penned the reports and resolves, that were from time to time issued; and when the matter was brought to a close, he drew up, as one of a committee appointed for the purpose, a sketch of the whole proceedings, which was published. This performance was entitled '*Observations on the American Revolution*,' and extended to a hundred and twenty-two closely printed pages. In addition to an account of the doings of Congress, in regard to the Commissioners, there is a condensed and well written introduction, containing an outline of the causes of the war, the means used by the Americans to avert it, their unavailing efforts to secure a recognition of their rights, and the chief events that had hitherto occurred. The whole was executed with address and ability, manifesting a deep knowledge of the principles and reasons on which the contest was founded, and an ardor of patriotism not surpassed in any writings of the day." pp. 187, 188.

Among other prominent subjects to which Morris devoted much time, while in Congress, may be mentioned the important instructions prepared by him in behalf of Congress to be sent to Dr. Franklin, our Minister in Paris, and the first instructions that "had ever been sent to an American Minister Plenipotentiary at a foreign court." We may also add the report from his pen, in February, 1779, on the subject of the terms of peace. This report was the basis of the peace as subsequently concluded, and "embraced all the points then deemed essential or advisable to be urged in a treaty with England, when the time for such an arrangement should arrive." In the debate that ensued, Morris took a distinguished and leading part; and was appointed to draw up the instructions to our ministers, embodying its results. He also entered the lists warmly in defence of that much injured man, Silas Deane, who was far from deserving the harsh treatment he received from Congress, and from numerous bitter enemies throughout the country.

Notwithstanding his invaluable services, Morris was dropped from Congress in 1780. We are not informed from history what was the occasion of this apparent fickleness in the legislature of New York. But tradition assigns as the reason, that "he neglected the concerns of the State and gave himself too much to the business and politics of the nation." Mr. Sparks treats this charge, and very properly, as a *frivolous pretext*. But it is probably true, that New York was somewhat dissatisfied because he was unwilling to go all lengths with that state in forcing Vermont to submit to her jurisdiction. The controversy between New York and New Hampshire in relation to the territory, now Vermont, had lasted many years, and had assumed a very angry and threatening aspect. Vermont insisted on coming into the Union as an independent state. New York would not allow her claim, and Morris clearly saw that his state must quietly give up the point or else insist upon fighting "the Green Mountain boys." It was folly and worse than folly to think of being empaled on this latter horn of the dilemma, and Morris therefore, as we have reason to suppose, was on the whole of opinion that New York had better relinquish her claim with what grace she might. And for this measure of peace and necessity he, "the observed of all observers," was banished from the halls of Congress.

In 1781, he was appointed by Robert Morris, the celebrated financier, his assistant in the office of Secretary of Finance. In this department for three years and a half he labored most assiduously, in connexion with the Secretary, to restore the finances of the nation to a comparatively sound and healthy state. To say that they managed well is but faint praise; they managed *wonderfully* well, considering their means and the circumstances of the country. To their exertions is due the establishment of the Bank of North America, which was of vast service in their financial schemes.

Judge Johnson, in his quarto "Life of General Greene," charges Morris with being a monarchist, and also with having written those inflammatory productions so well known as the *Newburgh Letters*. As to the Letters it is idle at this day to say any more than that they were written by Armstrong, whose acknowledgment of the fact destroys the feeble argument of the accuser, an argument that was never entitled even to the questionable merit of plausibility. As to the charge of being a monarchist, Mr. Sparks repels it with abundant success in a very few words; and we will add only, that while such charges are easily made by demagogues, and are now become quite stale with all decent people, we feel somewhat surprised that so grave a gentleman as the biographer of Greene should stoop to take them up, and give them credence, and publish them to the world. The fame of Morris is precious; it belongs to the country; and whoever unjustly assails it should "stifle in his own report, and smell of calumny."

Every subject that Morris undertook, he managed with talent and skill. In 1783 he wrote forcibly on the matter of the West India trade, and in opposition to the policy of restrictive regulations, both in regard to England and France. Recent events have given this subject no small share of interest. To Morris also belongs the entire praise of proposing the *money unit*, which was the foundation of a new plan for an American coinage, and was the *basis of the system afterwards adopted and now in use*. We regret that we have not room to enlarge upon this subject.

When Morris became Assistant Financier, he took up his residence in Philadelphia, and, as far as his other engagements permitted, resumed the practice of his profession. In 1787, he was chosen one of the delegates from Pennsylvania

to the Convention for forming the Constitution of the United States. That he was a zealous and industrious member of that body we should of course infer from the well known character of the man; and in confirmation of this belief we will add the testimony of Mr. Madison, the only surviving member of the Convention, in his very interesting letter to Mr. Sparks, from which we make the following extracts. In speaking of Morris, he says,

"It may be justly said, that he was an able, an eloquent, and an active member, and shared largely in the discussions succeeding the 1st of July, previous to which, with the exception of a few of the early days, he was absent. . . .

"The *finish* given to the style and arrangement of the Constitution fairly belongs to the pen of Mr. Morris; the task, having, probably, been handed over to him by the chairman of the Committee, himself a highly respectable member, and with the ready concurrence of the others. A better choice could not have been made, as the performance of the task proved. It is true, that the state of the materials, consisting of a reported draft in detail, and subsequent resolutions accurately penned, and falling easily into their proper places, was a good preparation for the symmetry and phraseology of the instrument, but there was sufficient room for the talents and taste stamped by the author on the face of it. The alterations made by the Committee are not recollected. They were not such, as to impair the merit of the composition. Those, verbal and others, made in the Convention, may be gathered from the Journal, and will be found also to leave that merit altogether unimpaired. . . .

"It is but due to Mr. Morris to remark, that, to the brilliancy of his genius, he added, what is too rare, a candid surrender of his opinions, when the lights of discussion satisfied him, that they had been too hastily formed, and a readiness to aid in making the best of measures in which he had been over-ruled." pp. 284-286.

While residing in Philadelphia, Gouverneur Morris had been concerned with Robert Morris in extensive mercantile operations. These had become not only very important, but somewhat intricate and perplexed, and it became necessary for the subject of this biography to visit Europe to attend to the affairs of the concern. He accordingly sailed in December, 1788, and reached Paris early in February following, at a period of great interest in the history of France. During

his residence in that country and in other parts of Europe, he kept a Diary, which, as a Diary should be, is very easy, spirited, and interesting, and contains a fund of information, as to individual characters, public measures, and successive adventures. His observations from time to time on the progress of the French Revolution, are in general marked with great good sense and wide forecast. In the winter of 1790, he was appointed by General Washington private agent to proceed to England and transact important business of national concern with the British ministry. The subject of his commission met with prompt attention on his part, and he pursued it with earnestness and zeal, and paved the way, so far as individual exertions and the circumstances of the times would permit, for the subsequent successful negotiation, by Mr. Jay, of the commercial treaty of 1794.

While in France as a private individual, Morris took a deep interest in the political affairs of that nation. As a friend to good government he deprecated the excesses of the Revolution, and was very bold and free in his remarks to the leading politicians on both sides. He was above all concealment, and would neither compromise truth nor his own opinions. Hence, when his advice was sought, as it frequently was, he disdained all disguise or evasion. A republic he knew was adapted to the genius of his own country; but for France, *mercurial* France, as she then was, the spirit of that form of government was not well suited. It was with the French a beautiful day-dream, and not as with us a real, living, practical principle of light and liberty. Morris, with prophetic accuracy, foretold the result, and often repeated his conviction that on the breaking down of the ancient dynasty a military despotism would soon rise upon its ruins. These opinions rendered him popular with the aristocratic party, and equally perhaps an object of dislike with the friends of the revolution. After his appointment as Minister Plenipotentiary to the French Court in 1792, as successor to Mr. Jefferson, it is due to him to say, that he abstained entirely from taking side with either party in that distracted country, and conducted himself with great prudence, firmness, and dignity.

The situation in which he was placed was full of difficulties and embarrassments. The authority of the king was suspended in a few months after Morris was appointed min-

ister, and within a year the unhappy monarch was put to death by his subjects. The new government, if such it may be called, was continually shifting, and one set of ruffians brought to the guillotine by another set more ferocious, if possible, than the former, and soon to yield to successors of the same abandoned principles and character. Amid these creatures, Morris had to sustain the honor and dignity of his country, to resist their depredations upon our commerce, defend our imprisoned citizens, and compel, so far as was practicable, the faithful execution of treaties. The task was ungracious and difficult; but he did not shrink from it; and although after the death of the king all the other ambassadors from foreign powers quitted the country, and he was urgently entreated to do the same, he resolutely determined to remain, and execute his official functions to the extent of his power. He continually met with vexations and annoyances from the subordinate agents of the revolutionary government, and even the sanctity of his house was invaded. Previous to this he had received an insulting letter from Lebrun, the Minister of Foreign Affairs. His reply was firm, but calm and judicious, and closes by requesting his passport, since the style of the Minister's letter was such as not to warrant his longer remaining in Paris. Lebrun, however, fearing to offend the government of the United States, the only remaining friendly power, sent an apologetical letter to our ambassador, which induced him to remain in the country. Morris had the confidence of the king, who felt grateful for the friendly advice received from him, and in a time of great danger entrusted him with the care of his funds to a large amount. He was also active at that time, and at a subsequent period, when at Vienna, in his endeavours to obtain the release of Lafayette from the gloomy dungeons of the Emperor, where he had been confined in the most barbarous manner, contrary to the law of nations, and in outrage of the spirit of humanity. But we cannot give in greater detail an account of the various and indefatigable efforts of Morris, while he represented this nation in France. He was recalled in 1794, at the request of the French Ministry, not because any just exceptions were taken against him, for he was ever highly esteemed by Washington, but simply as an act of *national comity*, then more particularly to be observed toward France, as the notorious Genet, the French Minister to

this country, had been recalled at the request of Washington, having forfeited his character as a public minister in ways which are too well known to need any comment. We will only add the opinion of Mr. Sparks, with which we fully agree, as to the manner in which Morris performed his official duties as ambassador.

“That his opinions, and the bold manner in which he had expressed them on all occasions, were a serious obstacle to the successful exercise of his official duties, especially after the overthrow of the monarchy in France, and the triumph of the disorganizing factions, cannot be denied; but he is entitled to the full credit of caution and circumspection, and to the praise of maintaining with dignity and firmness the interests of his country, in circumstances extremely vexatious and trying. It may with truth be affirmed, that no Amercian Minister abroad ever had a more difficult task to perform, or executed it, considering the situation in which he was placed, with more skill and ability.

“His official correspondence, while he was Minister to the French Court, was with Jefferson, then Secretary of State, and occasionally with Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury. To Washington he wrote constantly, as to a private friend, and presented a more detailed narrative of affairs, than was contained in his public despatches. It would be difficult to find, within the same compass, so full an account of the political progress and changes of the French Revolution for nearly five years, as may be gathered from his letters, private and official. He viewed the great panorama of passing events with a penetrating and comprehensive mind, and sketched what he saw in a style of bold and graphic accuracy. Allowance is to be made for the bias of his opinions, and his settled aversion to the principles of the revolutionists; but his judgment seldom deceived him, and his sincerity may always be relied on. His speculations are uttered as speculations, and may be distinguished as such. No one ever need confound them with the deliberate convictions of his understanding, his deductions from argument, or his statement of facts. Frankness, honesty, and a fearlessness in expressing his sentiments, were prominent features of his mind, and appear in all his writings.” pp. 371, 372.

After the termination of his official functions, Morris travelled for several years in various parts of England, Scotland, Germany, Switzerland, &c., forming acquaintance with the

most distinguished public men, with nobles and kings, and returned to America in December, 1798, having been absent from his native country ten years. In the mean time political parties had here grown up, and become bitter. In his sentiments he was a decided Federalist, although he did not join in all the measures of the Federal party. Thus he preferred Jefferson to Burr in the angry contest for the presidency in the winter of 1801, and was very decidedly in favor of the Louisiana purchase, to which, as is well known, the Federalists were in general warmly opposed. But all the leading measures of that party met with his approbation, and had his earnest support. "There," says Mr. Sparks, "he took a stand, and there he maintained it to the end of his life, sometimes, perhaps, with a zeal that outstripped prudence, but always with an honesty of purpose, a fearlessness of responsibility, and an ingenuous, hearty good will, that commanded the respect of his opponents, and deserved from his friends and foes the praise of high-minded patriotism."

In 1800, Morris was chosen by the legislature of New York to supply a vacancy in the Senate of the United States. He remained in the Senate three years, when, by the change of political parties, he was superseded in office, and retired to private life.

"During the three years of Mr. Morris's service in the Senate of the United States, he was a strong pillar in the Federal party, thoroughly imbued with their policy and principles, and generally uniting in their acts. The occasions on which he made conspicuous efforts, were in the debates on the repeal of the internal taxes, on the judiciary establishment, and on Ross' resolutions for taking possession of New Orleans." pp. 480, 481.

These speeches, which have been preserved, would of themselves give us a high opinion of the ability and eloquence of Morris, were we without other testimony. His mind was evidently fertile in resources, and he grasped his subject with the power of a commanding and cultivated intellect, and with all the fervor of an ardent temperament. During the remainder of his life he resided at Morrisania as a private citizen. But he still kept up a lively interest in public affairs, and carefully scanned the progress of events. To him belongs "the splendid conception of connecting the vast

waters of Erie and the upper lakes, with those of the Atlantic through the channel of the Hudson." Others have their meed of praise in bringing forward and perfecting the scheme, but "*he was first to give shape and consistency to the thought, or make it known to the world.*" This Mr. Sparks fairly demonstrates. In the darkest period of the revolution it is well ascertained that Morris predicted "that at no very distant day the waters of the great inland seas would, by the aid of man, break through their barriers and mingle with those of the Hudson." And in 1795, 1801, 1803, &c., he urged, over and over again, the practicability of this plan, and impressed upon others a sense of its importance. From 1810 till his death in November, 1816, he was chairman of the Board of Canal Commissioners, and three of the four reports made by them, within that period, to the legislature of New York, were drawn up by him. Nor was this all.

"During the six last years of Mr. Morris's life, his thoughts and his time were incessantly occupied with this business of the Erie Canal, not more in discharging his duties as a commissioner to their full extent, than in devising preliminary and incidental means for advancing the enterprise. He sought knowledge from able and skilful engineers, from the results of long experiments in other countries, from the aids of science, and from personal observation. He examined minutely all the surveys, that were made from time to time, entered into complicated calculations on the motion, pressure, absorption, and evaporation of water, as depending on the quality of the soil and position of the canal route; he formed estimates, not less complicated and difficult, respecting the cost of excavations, embankments, aqueducts, and lockage; in short, there were no details, which he did not thoroughly investigate, and subject to the scrutiny of his judgment. His two first reports to the legislature are very able documents, indicating at the same time a profound knowledge of the subject, and an uncommon enlargement of mind and foresight. Mr. Bleecker has well and truly observed, that 'what he then prophesied is now become history.' His remarks on the internal commerce of the United States, as connected with the Atlantic and with Canada, and as ultimately affecting our national improvement and prosperity, are the dictates of wisdom, the fruits of a laborious inquiry concerning the physical structure and resources of the country, and of a deep search into the causes, which carry for-

ward the intercourse, growth, and refinement of society." pp. 502, 503.

Mr. Sparks has inserted in the latter part of the first volume, extracts from a Sketch of Morris's character drawn by Madame de Damas, a French lady, who was well acquainted with him. The Sketch is felicitous in delineating his prominent characteristics, and unites accuracy with delicate discrimination. It is, indeed, somewhat overcharged in the manner of its execution,—embellished according to the taste and habit of the French, especially of the French ladies. But we believe it to be in substance correct, and that all that is said of him is true, although we might not subscribe to the *manner* in which it is told.

The second and third volumes contain selections from his correspondence, diplomatic and private, while in Europe, and after his return to this country. The private correspondence embraces letters to a great variety of distinguished persons, nobles, gentles, and ladies, in England and on the Continent, and to many of the leading men in the United States. His letters while in France, and his Diary for that period, constitute a valuable history of the Revolution, narrated in a flowing, though occasionally in a careless style. His private letters do equal credit to his understanding and affections, and are on the whole very good specimens of epistolary skill.

Mr. Sparks has raised the general estimate of the character of Gouverneur Morris, simply because he has made it better known. There are but few among us who are intimately acquainted with that part of our revolutionary history, which is contained in the lives and actions of the leading men of that period. The amount of knowledge that most possess, is confined to prominent events in the war, and to the recollection that such and such individuals commanded in the army or gained distinction in the cabinet; but does not extend to that minute and quickening information, which well-wrought biography so fully yields. Morris, by his letters, Diary, and speeches has left a monument of his own industry, and has established an enduring fame. His prevailing fault was "a forwardness of manner, a licence of expression, and an indulgence of his humor" at the expense of others, which sometimes annoyed his friends and doubtless made him many enemies. But this arose not from any malevolence in his nature, but rather from a consciousness of his

own intellectual strength, and that pride of opinion and quick perception of the ridiculous that marked his character ; while his good qualities far outweighed this defect. He possessed prompt discernment, an open and ingenuous disposition, great political wisdom and sagacity, and the power of accomplishing, and accomplishing well, whatever depended upon the operations of his own mind. And to his other resources was added a facility in bringing to his aid whatever might illustrate or adorn the subject in hand. History and patient investigation and close observation had given him an intimate knowledge of man, and made him wise to discern the future, and advise well for the immediate occasion. If he sometimes erred in opinion, it was honest error, and he was too ingenuous not to correct it when convinced of its existence. We like his open, honorable, and direct course. If sometimes it led him into difficulty, and gave the sting to enmity, it was on the whole advantageous ; and we would that there were more such politicians, who would "speak right on," and not be guilty of tortuous conduct and disguise.

Mr. Sparks has made a very interesting volume of biography, and has, we think, done full justice to the subject. It has been objected by some that the work is too large. Perhaps here and there the materials might have been a little more condensed ; but we do not think that much could have been done in this way without injuring the texture of the whole. The biography is contained in one volume, and only so much of general history is introduced as is necessary to place the character of Morris in prominent relief. The biographer's own comments and reflections are brief and to the purpose. The extracts from the Diary we would not willingly spare ; and as to the letters which fill the second and third volumes, they are such pleasing illustrations of the qualities both of the head and heart of the writer, that we would rather demand a greater number than be deprived of the present supply. It is important, we think, to the history of our country in its most eventful era, that the lives of the great men of our revolution should be given to us in full ; and where materials are so ample and valuable as in the work we have described, we hope there will be equal liberality in the use.

We have only to add, that while the general appearance of these volumes in type and paper is good, we regret that

the press has not been corrected with more care. The typographical errors are too numerous for a work of this character.

ART. X. — *Biography of Self-Taught Men, with an Introductory Essay.* By B. B. EDWARDS. BOSTON. Perkins & Marvin. 1832. 12mo. pp. 312.

THIS little volume consists of short biographical sketches of individuals who mainly by their own unaided efforts, and often in the most unfavorable circumstances, have risen to eminence in learning, or science, or successful action. The Introductory Essay which precedes these narratives is written with good sense and ability, and contains many just and striking views of the intellectual and moral condition and wants of our country. The topics touched upon are of the highest importance; and though only brief suggestions are made, they are evidently the fruit of enlightened and comprehensive reflection; while the pure moral tone and earnest patriotism which pervade the whole are highly creditable to the writer's heart. These suggestions relate to the danger of innovation and rapid change, — the importance of a more fervent and general coöperation of the friends of intelligence and sound principles, — the religious aspect of questions of political economy, — the immense importance of preserving the due ascendancy of mind over matter, — and the formation of a national Christian literature. In connexion with these suggestions and for accomplishing the conditions on which our national well-being is suspended, the author places great reliance upon that class of young men among us, who feel the thirst for knowledge and the impulse to high exertion, but who, little friended by circumstances, are obliged to work out their way to knowledge and usefulness by their own energy. The Essay is chiefly taken up in describing the characteristic excellences and defects of minds thus formed. Then follow the biographical sketches which are intended to afford direction and encouragement to such as are thus obliged to rely upon their own exertions, and to contend with difficulties. And as the book is designed for young men of this country, it is not only gratifying, but perhaps the incitement will be the more quickening, that of the thirty-

three sketches which the volume contains, the Editor has found subjects for thirteen in our own land, — examples too, especially such as Sherman, Rittenhouse, Huntington, and King, so worthy to be studied and followed. We think the work is likely to be acceptable and useful to those for whom it was intended. Example affords not only the most commendous instruction, but also the most awakening and sustaining motive to action. When we see what man has done, and how it was done, we feel more strongly what man can do ; and Faith springs up, Purpose becomes more lofty and resolved, Hope is animated, and thereof Power is born, which had else lain dormant for ever. For Faith is the parent of Power, and in a wider than the common interpretation, does it overcome the world, removing mountains and working wonders. Narratives like these strikingly illustrate the force of application in overcoming almost every conceivable obstacle. They prove how independent we really are, if we choose to be, of those outward circumstances, which to the aspiring but feeble, to the indolent or irresolute, seem to make such a difference between man and man, and without the aid of which the avenues to learning or eminent usefulness seem impassably barred up. They exhibit the power of lofty determination and untiring perseverance. They show how, under the Providence of God, obstacles of every sort and size are made to give way, or minister to the unconquerable will, that does not falter in its purpose, nor relax its struggle. They show what may be done by labor. They inculcate the salutary lesson that the secret of success is hard work ; that nothing greatly good and noble can be achieved without it. They speak with a stirring voice to the spirit of the young : What will you be ? What will you do ? Have an object in life, — have some distinct and definite aim. Live for something ; let it be something worth living for ; and for that be willing to labor with the whole energy of your being. And they teach every one who feels in himself the thirst for knowledge, or the impulse to high exertion, that however unfriended he may be by outward circumstances, he never need despair of achieving a measure of success worth having lived for, if only he will make the very utmost of the possibilities of his actual condition, if he will fix his eye steadfastly on his object, pursuing it through evil report and through good report with unwavering constancy

of purpose and unrelaxing rigor of exertion. In short, they are calculated to enkindle a noble ardor, and to direct it on the high road to success.

We are inclined to think, however, that in preparing this volume, the writer would have better attained his object if the sketches had been fewer in number and more minute and full. The quickening influence of such a work does not depend so much on the number of illustrious names that are set down in it with the registered result of their labors, as on the full and vivid picture of the individual presented in the progress of his inward and outward life, as he pursues his way to knowledge and usefulness through poverty and friendlessness and every obstacle. Thus the reader is brought into intimacy with a noble spirit. It becomes a living example, exciting the keenest sympathy, and inspiring a kindred ardor. We should have preferred, therefore, that several of the narratives of individuals who are either less distinguished, or the materials for whose lives are more scanty, had been omitted in order to give room for a fuller portraiture of such men as Heyne, Alexander Murray, and Gifford.

In regard to the style we might find matter of criticism. There is, particularly in the *Essay*, a too frequent occurrence of short sentences, without any thing new or important requiring an emphatic annunciation. Five or six of the shortest sentences not unfrequently occur in succession, which contain but little more than a bare reiteration of the same thought in a different form, or certainly are without any proportionable variation and progress of thought, and which would much more properly have been wrought together as members of one period. One is reminded of what Coleridge says of sentences made for asthmatic lungs to read, and for men of asthmatic intellects to understand. Mr. Edwards's style in this particular is evidently formed on a vicious system, which, as well as another fault that struck us, namely, an occasional ambitiousness of thought and language, we should be glad to see corrected; for we have a high respect for Mr. Edwards's ability and for the lofty and earnest spirit by which he is actuated. Though he has made a useful book, we think he can make a better; and we hope that he will go on in his efforts to excite our young men to the love of learning and of honorable and useful exertion.

ART. XI. — *Precedents of Indictments; to which is prefixed a Concise Treatise upon the Office and Duty of Grand Jurors.* By DANIEL DAVIS, Solicitor General of Massachusetts. Boston. Carter, Hendee, & Babcock. 1831. Svo. pp. 319.

THIS volume contains, besides a short treatise upon the Office and Duty of Grand Jurors, three hundred and forty-four Precedents of Indictments; the form of an Information; several forms of Informations *quo warranto*; the form of a writ of Certiorari, of a writ of Error, of a writ of Habeas Corpus, and of several pleas in criminal cases. These forms are accompanied with many short notes at the bottom of the pages.

In his "Treatise upon the Office and Duty of Grand Jurors," our author tells us, that the institution of grand jurors is one of the most ancient which we derive from our English ancestors. It is known to have existed for nearly a thousand years. In relation to this institution Mr. Davis says, "From long experience and observation it may be safely asserted, that [there has been] no body of men, designated to exercise important powers and functions connected with the judicial department of our government, [who] have been more respected, or concerning whom the public opinion has uniformly been more favorable, than the grand jurors selected and organized according to the laws and usages of our happy country."

This subject is divided and considered under the following heads:

"*First.* Their number and qualifications, as required by law.

"*Secondly.* The mode of selecting and summoning them.

"*Thirdly.* The course of proceeding after their appearance in court. Their oath; its nature and obligations.

"*Fourthly.* The right of challenging grand jurors, and the right of the court to instruct them as to the principles of evidence.

"*Fifthly.* The mode of proceeding, after the grand jury are organized.

"*Sixthly.* The nature of the evidence to be submitted to them, and the principles and grounds upon which it is to be received and decided upon by them.

"*Seventhly.* The right of the grand jury to compel the attendance of witnesses. The finding of the bills, &c.

"*Eighthly.* The amendment of indictments by the order of court, and the consent of the grand jury." p. 4.

The remarks under each of these heads are pertinent. And the information communicated, or at least much of it, is such as could not come from any one who had not spent his life as a public prosecutor. It must be highly useful to the public.

But the work is chiefly made up of *Precedents of Indictments.*

"The volume is intended," says the author, "to furnish a more extensive and complete collection of precedents of indictments, than has hitherto been contained in any *one work* upon that subject; and to reduce them to as great a degree of conciseness and simplicity as may be consistent with their correctness and validity. In the forms herein contained, the obsolete language; the ancient but unnecessary technical phrases; and the superfluous prefatory allegations and averments, which are still retained in the English and American collections, have been rejected." p. iii.

We have looked over these forms, and can bear testimony to the truth of this remark as a general one; but we apprehend that even in this volume there are many precedents containing superfluous words and unnecessary averments.

In the very first precedent in the book the author rejects the words "force and arms"; and in a note refers to Hawkins and Hale as authorities for so doing. In another note he refers to the same writers to show that the word "dignity" at the close of the precedent may be omitted; and yet it is retained in that as well as in most of the other precedents. Why retain one and reject the other when the same authorities apply to both with equal force.

In No. 39, which is a precedent "for an assault not accompanied with a battery," the person upon whom the assault is alleged to have been committed is said to be "in the peace of the said Commonwealth." And yet, in the note, many authorities are cited to show that these words, "in the peace of the said Commonwealth then and there being," are wholly unnecessary. These words are also retained in Nos. 40 and 41. But in No. 42, which like the three former precedents is upon the subject of assaults, and "for an assault and beating out an eye," these words, "in

the peace," &c. are omitted, but in that precedent the person who is alleged to have made the assault is said "to be of a depraved and malicious disposition."

In No. 43, which is "for an assault and tearing the hair off prosecutor's head," the person who makes the assault is not alleged to be of "a depraved and malicious disposition," but he upon whom it is made is said to be "in the peace of the Commonwealth."

According to these precedents, therefore, it would seem that when an eye is beat out, we need not allege that the prosecutor was in the peace of the Commonwealth, but must aver that the assailant is of a depraved and malicious disposition; but when the prosecutor's hair is torn off his head, he must allege that he was in the peace of the Commonwealth, but need say nothing of the disposition of the assailant. To justify this distinction the Solicitor ought to have cited, and must, we think, have relied upon the maxim, that "the law is as nice as a new laid egg."

We merely refer to the following precedents, as containing more or less superfluous matter, viz. Nos. 135, 136, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183. Our author in his prefatory remarks says, "It seems singular that the best and most modern compilers of these precedents should retain allegations and averments, so long since exploded; and, at the same time, carefully note the authorities by which they have been decided to be unnecessary and superfluous." And he happily adds, "there is no better reason for retaining the obsolete, and, in some instances, it may be said the exploded language found in the ancient forms in criminal processes, than there would be in retaining the costume of the age in which it was first adopted." There can be no doubt that the precedents in this volume are very much improved in this particular, but some of them are not perfect; and not so perfect as they would have been, if the author had adhered more strictly to his own rule. We are reminded of the answer of a lawyer, who, when inquired of by a lady why a certain brother of his profession left it for theology, said, he found it easier to preach than to practise.

It cannot be denied, however, that the value of these precedents is very much increased by the notes which are very numerous, though generally very short, in which the author informs the public whether the precedent was original with

him, or taken from some other book. He gives the authorities by which it is supported, and frequently refers to cases in which it has been used; and if founded upon a statute, he refers to the statute, chapter, and section.

We should think nearly half the precedents in this volume are founded upon the statutes of Massachusetts. Very nearly all of them were drawn by Mr. Davis himself in the discharge of his official duty. He no doubt availed himself of such aids as the books containing precedents upon similar subjects would afford; but they could not have been drawn without a good deal of labor, and they are generally much better forms than those borrowed from other authors.

No. 152, and the fifteen following precedents, are drawn upon the "statute against forgery and counterfeiting." These forms, with the notes, are the most valuable commentary which can be found, and better than any man, who had not for a long time been a public prosecutor, could make, upon that highly important statute.

Besides the precedents of indictments, this volume contains "a form of an information in a criminal case," with the suggestion in a note, that "there is no variance in the general form of an information in criminal cases;" and having the formal part, which is always the same, nothing is necessary but to turn to the precedents of indictments, and take the allegations and descriptions of the offence you are about to prosecute, and transfer them into the information.

In the note above alluded to are to be found the following remarks upon the subject of informations, which are certainly worth much consideration.

"This mode of prosecuting crimes is not, in my apprehension, either congenial or consistent with the nature of our government and institutions. If the practice were restricted to corporations, it might not be objectionable. But if it were extended here, either in law or practice, as it is in England, to every species of crime excepting treason, misprision of treason, and felony, the protection of the innocent from groundless and malicious prosecutions, which we think we derive from the institution of grand juries, might be endangered. The instructions which are given by our judges in their charges to the grand jury to accuse no one without full and satisfactory evidence of his guilt, is one of the most admirable features in the administration of public justice. The institution of grand

juries has existed in England for nearly a thousand years, and in this country ever since its settlement.

"The power of the attorney general in England, in regard to the prosecution of crimes by information, would be viewed with great jealousy in this country. He is the sole judge of what public misdemeanors he will prosecute. 1 Chitt. 845; 4 Bl. Com. 312, Bac. Abr. *Information*, A. He may file an information against any one whom he thinks proper to select, without oath, without motion, or opportunity for the defendant to show cause against the proceedings. Id. Ibid. Nor is he in any case liable to an action for a groundless or malicious prosecution. 1 Chitt. 846; 1 T. R. 514, 535. So independent is his authority, that the court will not quash his information on the motion of the defendant; but will compel him to plead or demur. 1 Salk. 372; Bac. Abr. *Information*, A.; 1 Chitt. 847. The information, being a mere assertion of the officer who files it, may be amended at any time before trial, without the consent of the defendant. These amendments may be very extensive and material; counts may be struck out, and new ones inserted. 1 Chitt. 868; 4 Burr. 2528. Power to this extent, concentrated in a single individual, and that individual not only the officer, but the *minister of the government* which he serves, would not be endured in this country.

"What is the extent of the power of a public prosecutor under our constitution of government, has never, to my knowledge, been tested.

"There is a general rule stated in 5 Mass. R. 257, which is to this effect: 'that *all public misdemeanors* which may be prosecuted by indictment, may be prosecuted by information, in behalf of the Commonwealth; unless the prosecution be restrained by the statute to indictment.' There may be such a rule; but I confess I have never met with it in the course of long official experience; and if it exists, I should doubt its applicability to the principles and policy of our government." pp. 265, 266.

The book also contains several forms for informations *quo warranto*, writ of Certiorari, Error, Habeas Corpus, forms of several pleas, and other proceedings in criminal matters.

Even in looking over this book of forms we are reminded of several events in which the public at the time they happened took a deep interest.

The form No. 283 was taken from the indictment used in the case of the far-famed Captain Kidd and his crew, who were tried for piracy.

No. 326 is taken from the indictment used against Aaron Burr for treason against the United States.

No. 220 is said to be the substance of the indictment against Theodore Lyman, Esq. for an alleged libel against Mr. Webster.

And in different parts of the book, under their appropriate heads, we have all the forms prepared, some of which were used, in the cases against the Knapps and Crowninshields for the murder of Captain White at Salem, in 1830.

After a careful perusal of this book, we feel no hesitation in saying, that we know of no volume of equal size in which a lawyer can find more useful information, or one on which he can more safely rely in practice. The author says, "This work in the result of his official experience, acquired under the advice and correction of distinguished judges and professional friends."

Mr. Davis has been well known as Solicitor General in Massachusetts for more than thirty years, — and during that whole period has been distinguished no less for the accuracy of his learning and the extent of his researches, than for the elegance of his address, and the eloquence of his appeals.

ART. XII. — *An Introduction to the Natural System of Botany; or a Systematic View of the Organization, Natural Affinities, and Geographical Distribution of the whole Vegetable Kingdom; together with the Uses of the most important species in Medicine, the Arts, and Rural or Domestic Economy.* By JOHN LINDLEY, F. R. S., L. S., G. S., &c., and Professor of Botany in the University of London. First American Edition, with an *Appendix*. By JOHN TORREY, M. D., Professor of Chemistry and Botany in the College of Physicians and Surgeons in the City of New York, &c. New York. G. & C. & H. Carvill. 1831. 8vo. pp. 393.

WE are glad to see an American edition of this work, which, with the useful additions made to it by the editor, will greatly promote the cultivation of Botanical science in this country. The Linnæan system, it is true, has hitherto been and will probably continue to be found convenient to the beginner in learning the names; but till this time there has been no comprehensive manual, in our language, detailing the natural relations and qualities of plants.

Professor Torrey has enhanced the value of the work by prefixing to it "an outline of the first principles of Botany," by Professor Lindley, and by annexing "a Catalogue of the North American Genera of Plants arranged according to the Orders of Lindley's Introduction, with the number of species belonging to each genus as far as they are at present determined." The latter, with some tables, an alphabetical list of North American flowering plants, and certain additions inserted in the body of the work, constitute the portions for which we are indebted to Professor Torrey.

While we acknowledge the great merit of the two works of Professor Lindley, now combined in the American edition, and are fully sensible of the advantage to be obtained from the additions made to it by Professor Torrey, we regret to find so many errors of the press, and, still more, are we surprised that a uniformity in the names of the divisions has not been preserved. Thus, what, in the "artificial analysis," are called *Orders*, are, in the body of the work, denominated *Tribes*. Though the name of the division is but of little consequence provided it be uniformly adopted and retained, still we should prefer to call these natural groups *Families*, and refer the titles *Tribes* and *Orders* to the larger, and, as we think, less natural groups.

Our objections, however, are not such as to prevent us from recommending this work to all who are desirous of attaining a knowledge of the organization and nature of plants; and we would add, that such a work is indispensable to the American botanist.

ART. XIII. — *The French First Class Book, being a new Selection of Reading Lessons: In Four Parts, viz.*
1. *Authentic Pieces in Prose.* 2. *Prose Comedies of Molière, abridged.* 3. *Choice Pieces in Verse.* 4. *Abridged Dramas and Scenes in Verse. The whole calculated to interest as well as improve the Learner.*
By WILLIAM B. FOWLE, Principal of the Monitorial School. Boston. Crocker & Brewster. 1832. 12mo. pp. 288.

WE have no hesitation in recommending this book, to all who are giving instruction, whether to children or to those of

mature minds, in the French tongue. We have made proof of it, and found it well suited to both the ends which the compiler had in view, the gratification and the improvement of the learner. Something like it has been much wanted. We have tried such stories as Florian's; but never found that they engaged strongly the attention of the pupil, nor could we wonder that they did not. *Télémaque* has been again and again prepared for the use of beginners. But to go through with it is after all a heavy undertaking, and the book sadly wants variety. The *Ami des Enfans* of Berquin is indeed excellent, and may be used with great advantage. But it is not suited perfectly to all classes of readers; its best things have become familiar to children through translation; most of its pieces are too long, and they are too uniform in style. We were in need of a miscellaneous work like the one before us. Mr. Fowle has accomplished the task, it appears to us, extremely well; with great diligence and in good taste. He has made his selections from a wide range of authors, and so judiciously that they are not tedious either from their length or want of vigor. The book is singularly distinguished throughout by its sprightliness. To this pleasant quality,—and useful one, we may add,—the compiler has in no small degree contributed by the freedom and point of the English titles, which he has prefixed to each piece. We speak in this language of hearty commendation, because we feel sure that Mr. Fowle has here done the public a good service.

We could wish that more pains had been bestowed on the proof sheets. The utmost accuracy is required in books for learners, especially when the words are foreign. We should not think so much of a letter here and there misplaced or omitted. But the negligence becomes serious, when the "conversion" of Socrates is spoken of instead of his "conservation," which we suppose must be the true reading, at page 59. The errors will be corrected, we trust, in another edition.

ART. XIV. — *The North American Arithmetic.* Part Second. *Uniting Oral and Written Exercises in corresponding Chapters.* By FREDERICK EMERSON. Boston. Lincoln & Edmands. 1832. 12mo. pp. 190.

THIS is the second of a series of books in which Arithmetic is designed to be taught, chiefly upon the inductive method of instruction. "Part First" has been published some years; "Part Third," our author tells us, will appear in the course of a few months.

The teaching of Arithmetic *orally*, or without the use of the slate, has, for a considerable number of years, been successfully practised in very many of our schools, both public and private, and has now grown into general favor. The portion of Mr. Emerson's "Second Part," intended to be so taught, differs so little from a system that has been long before the public, that we cannot think the want of it could have been very painfully felt.

The explanation of arithmetical truths by means of "cuts" is claimed as an original invention. If so, with such little temptation as it must offer, we hope that "compilers" will give heed either to the "laws of the land," the eighth commandment, or Mr. Emerson's admonition, and do him no wrong.

The "Written Arithmetic" contains about an equal number of pages with the "Oral," and corresponds to it in its topics and arrangement, but without reference from the one to the other. The questions for solution in this part, and indeed, in the whole work, are taken more generally from matters with which the learner is or should be acquainted, than in any other similar work which we have met with. Upon the whole, Mr. Emerson's Arithmetic seems to have been prepared with a good deal of care and pains-taking, and is neatly published; but we do not find in it any sufficient apology for adding his voice to the loud pretensions, so often made, and so patiently acquiesced in, to the merit of novelty, discovery, or invention.

ART. XV. — *An Only Son. A Narrative.* By the Author of "My Early Days." Boston. Leonard C. Bowles. 1832.

"AN Only Son" is a tale of remarkable interest; and is told by the hero himself, with the same tasteful ease and gracefulness which charm us in "My Early Days." The design may be gathered from one of the closing paragraphs of the volume.

"If I have freely interpreted conventional terms, — if I have said that the laurels of war tarnish the brow they encircle, — my heart justifies my motives, and History embodies my defence."

In the course of the narrative the rash anticipations of youthful ardor, checked by sad experience, are depicted by a powerful hand. The "pomp and circumstance of war," which present so charming a prospect to the youthful imagination, are found to be little else than the dull routine of camp duty, and the heart-rending scenes of havoc and bloodshed. After passing through a variety of incidents; a duel in which he killed one who had ever been his dearest friend; and numberless sieges and battles, the hero returns to his desolate home, which he had left by stealth, overwhelmed with remorse and sick at heart. "Grievous," he says, "is the guilt of filial ingratitude and the shedding of blood."

The work abounds in excellent remarks on the faults of education, the crimes and cruelty of war, the hollowness of the soldier's fame, and on several odious and absurd practices which have had their origin in false estimates of honor.

Both of the tales may be read with equal pleasure and profit by the young and the old. Children will be delighted with the adventures described, and made better by the moral lessons conveyed with great ingenuity and force. Those who have passed their "early days," and who may be said to live more in memory than in hope, will admire them for the tender recollections which they are fitted to raise in the mind, and meanwhile will have their affections purified by dwelling on the simplicity and innocence of childhood.

LIST OF BOOKS PUBLISHED AND IN PRESS,

FOR MAY, 1832.

Carey & Lea, Philadelphia.

Renwick's Treatise on Mechanics. 8vo.

White's Natural History of Selborne. 18mo.

T. Kite & Co., Philadelphia.

Grimké's Letter.

Nicklin & Johnson, Philadelphia.

Roscoe on Evidence. 8vo.

Key, Meilke, & Biddle, Philadelphia.

The Songster's Own Book. 24mo.

Frost's Universal History. 12mo.

G. W. Mentz & Sons, Philadelphia.

The Trial of Mrs. Chapman. 8vo.

R. H. Small, Philadelphia.

Coventry and Hughes's Digest. 2 vols. 8vo.

W. & J. Neal, Philadelphia.

The Sisters' Budget. 2 vols. 18mo.

John Fleming, Carlisle, Pa.

Duffield on Regeneration. 8vo.

J. & J. Harper, New York.

Description of Pitcairn's Island. 18mo.

Evidence of Prophecy. By the Rev. A. Keith. 12mo.

Cox's Adventures on the Columbia River. 8vo.

Cooper's Spy. 2 vols. 12mo.

Romance and Reality. By L. E. L. 2 vols. 12mo.

The False Step, and the Sisters. 2 vols. 12mo.

John Doyle, New York.

Cobbet's Grammar of the French Language. 18mo.

Gould, Banks, & Co., New York.

Edwards on Parties in Chancery. 8vo.

Graham's Practice. 8vo.

Collins & Hannay, New York.

Hovenden on Frauds. 8vo.

French & Brown, Newport, N. H.

New Hampshire Reports. Part 3. Vol. 5. 8vo.

Hilliard, Gray, & Co., Boston.

Enfield's Philosophy. 5th edition. 8vo.

Smellie's Philosophy. By John Ware, M. D.. 4th edition. 8vo.

Bowditch's La Place. Vol. 2.

Cæsar's Commentaries. Stereotype edition. 12mo.

Donnegan's Greek and English Lexicon. 8vo.

In Press.

Old English Prose Writers. Vol. 5. Walton's Lives.

Moore & Sevey, Boston.

Secrecy. A Poem. By Thomas Power. 2d edition.

Richardson, Lord, & Holbrook, Boston.

Peter Parley's History of Ancient and Modern Greece. 18mo.

Hall's Lectures to Female Teachers. 12mo.

In Press.

The American Common-Place Book of Pulpit Eloquence. By George B. Cheever.

Conversations on the Evidences of Christianity. By J. L. Blake.

A Universal Gazetteer. 8vo.

A Universal Pocket Gazetteer.

A System of Universal Geography.

Saturday Lectures. By Mrs. Lincoln.

A Second and Third Book of History.

Peter Parley's History of Ancient Rome.

A Familiar Treatise on the Mythology of the Ancient Greeks and Romans.

An Elementary Treatise on Astronomy.

Elements of Chemistry.

Croker's Boswell's Johnson.

L. C. Bowles, Boston.

An Address before the Hancock Sunday School, March 31, 1832. By the Superintendent. 18mo.

Boston and its Environs. A Poem. 12mo.

The Choice. A Tragedy. By H. J. Packard. 18mo.

An Only Son. By the Author of "My Early Days." 18mo.

Five Years of Youth. By Harriet Martineau. 18mo.

Counsels and Consolations. By J. Farr. 18mo.

Whitman's Village Sermons. 12mo.

Words of Truth. By the Author of "Selections from Fenelon."

Cottons & Barnard, Boston.

Bachi's Spanish Grammar. 12mo.

Lilly & Wait, Boston.

A Treatise on the Principles of Pleading. By James Gould. 8vo.

Knowledge for the People. No. 9.

In Press.

Maule and Selwyn's Reports, condensed. 2 vols. 8vo.

Library of Entertaining Knowledge. Vol. 12. 18mo.

Selections from the Edinburgh Review. 4 vols. 8vo.

Selections from the Quarterly Review. 3 vols. 8vo.

A Practical Treatise on Breeding, Rearing, and Fattening all Kinds of Poultry, &c. 18mo.

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The Well-Spent Hour. 3d edition. Corrected and enlarged.

Sequel to the Well-Spent Hour; or the Birth-Day.

William Hyde & Co., Boston.

Pope's Essay on Man. By Daniel Clarke. 18mo.

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Peter Parley's Ornithology. 18mo.

In Press.

Juvenile Rolla.

Newman's Rhetoric. 3d edition.

Marsh, Capen, & Lyon, Boston.

Shaw's Operative Masonry. 8vo.

James Loring, Boston.

A Memoir of Harriet Dow. By Barron Stow. 12mo.

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Emerson's North American Arithmetic. Part 2d.

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B. F. Edmands, Boston.

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Gray & Bowen, Boston.

In Press.

Sermons by the Rev. William E. Channing. 12mo.

Memoir of the Life and Times of Commodore Barney. By Mrs. Mary Barney.

American Annual Register, for 1830 — 1831.

J. S. & C. Adams, Amherst.

Evans on the Denominations of the Christian World.

Merriam, Little, & Co., Brookfield.

A Sermon upon Isaiah ix. 6; also an Explanation of John i. 1. By G. R. Noyes. 24mo.

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